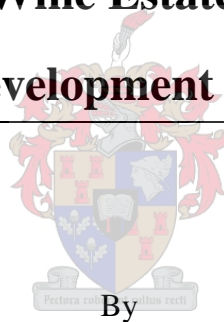


Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Social Work in
the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University

Capacity building for farm workers on Solms-Delta

Wine Estate:

A social development perspective



By

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F gego dgt 2012

DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

Wine farms in the Western Cape represent one of the pillars of the region's economy. The social problems that are prevalent among farm workers and their families have evolved over centuries along with the wine industry; the unique set of social, economic, and political conditions affecting rural dwellers in the Western Cape have created a set of challenges impeding a productive future. The interventions at Solms-Delta Wine Estate have empowered the farm community and thus provide a template for social reform.

Capacity development initiatives have been central to the farm's management plan. The employment of a fulltime social worker allowed resource gathering to implement social reforms on the farm. The present study investigated the evolution of an approach that encompasses the social development perspective of social work theory. This study is an example of the methods used to bring about stronger community development capacity.

The goal of the study was to gain an understanding of the nature of capacity-building initiatives on the wine farm under review from a social development perspective. A review of the historical roots of farm worker subjugation was undertaken to uncover the social dynamic of farm worker community development. Secondly, the study has outlined the political, economic, and legal institutional parameters for rural development. A third strand of the narrative describes the nature of capacity-building initiatives undertaken over the preceding six years, and their impact on the social development of the target community. Finally, the study explored the impact of local capacity development via a semi-structured questionnaire and subsequent interviews with the twenty-one participants.

The results of the research outlined in this study provide a number of templates for social work interventions in rural communities on wine farms in the Western Cape. Given the centrality of the wine farm industry in the Western Cape, the success of social welfare initiatives at Solms-Delta delineates road maps for other community-based programmes that can be launched from the lessons of this study. The locality development model, with its emphasis on community input in problem solving provides a framework for countering the unique set of challenges created from the inception of colonialism up to the end of Apartheid social engineering, . The empowering environment developed at Solms-Delta offers insight into rolling back historical ills and entitlement issues that bedevil social work practice. Successful community participation requires research into specific community dynamics and the resources to empower one of South Africa's most impoverished social strata.

OPSOMMING

Wynplase in die Wes-Kaap vorm een van die pilare van die streek se ekonomie. Die maatskaplike probleme wat onder plaaswerkers en hul gesinne voorkom, het oor die eeue heen saam met die wynbedryf ontwikkel. Dit behels die unieke kombinasie van sosiale, ekonomiese en politieke omstandighede met betrekking tot die landelike bewoners van die Wes-Kaap, wat 'n uitdaging stel en 'n produktiewe toekoms belemmer. Die intervensies op die Solms-Delta wynlandgoed bemagtig die gemeenskap op die plaas en bied dus 'n voorbeeld vir sosiale hervorming.

Kapasiteitsontwikkelingsinisiatiewe is sentraal tot die bestuursplan van die plase. Die aanstelling van 'n voltydse maatskaplike werker was 'n belangrike addisionele hulpbron om sosiale hervorming op die plaas te bewerkstellig. Die huidige studie ondersoek die evolusie van 'n benadering wat die sosiale ontwikkelingsperspektief van maatskaplike-werkteorie betrek. Hierdie studie is 'n voorbeeld van die metodes wat gebruik kan word om 'n sterker kapasiteit vir gemeenskapsontwikkeling te ontwikkel.

Die doel van die studie was om 'n begrip vanuit 'n maatskaplike ontwikkelingsperspektief-oogpunt te verkry van die aard van kapasiteitsbou-inisiatiewe op die wynplaas onder oorsig. Om die sosiale dinamika van die plaaswerkersgemeenskap se ontwikkeling aan die lig te bring, het die studie 'n oorsig van die historiese herkoms van die plaaswerkers onderneem. Tweedens, het die studie 'n oorsig onderneem van die politieke, ekonomiese en wetlike institusionele parameters vir landelike ontwikkeling. 'n Derde deel van die navorsing beskryf die aard van kapasiteitsbou-inisiatiewe oor die afgelope ses jaar, en hul impak op die maatskaplike ontwikkeling van die teikengemeenskap. Ten slotte, het die studie die impak van die ontwikkeling van plaaslike kapasiteit deur middel van 'n semi-gestruktureerde vraelys en 'n daaropvolgende onderhoud met die 21 deelnemers ondersoek.

Die resultate van die navorsing soos in hierdie verslag uiteengesit bied 'n aantal voorbeelde vir maatskaplike werk-ingrypings in landelike gemeenskappe op plase in die Wes-Kaap. Gegewe die sentraliteit van die wynbedryf in die Wes-Kaap, lewer die sukses van die maatskaplike welsynsinisiatiewe op Solms-Delta 'n voorbeeld vir ander gemeenskaps-gebaseerde programme wat uit die lesse van hierdie studie kan baat. Die lokaliteit-ontwikkelingsmodel, met sy klem op insette vanuit die gemeenskap om probleme op te los, bied 'n raamwerk vir die stryd teen die unieke stel uitdagings wat ontstaan het met die begin van kolonialisme en tot aan die einde van apartheid bly voortduur het. Die bemagtigings-

omgewing wat op Solms-Delta ontwikkel het, bied insig in die rol van so 'n proses vir die bekamping van die historiese ewels en onregte wat die praktyk van maatskaplike werk so belemmer.

Suksesvolle gemeenskapsdeelname vereis navorsing na die dinamika binne spesifieke gemeenskappe, asook al die nodige hulpbronne, om een van Suid-Afrika se mees verarmde sosiale strata te bemagtig.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

South Africa's past, present and future find unique expression in the wine industry, which reflects greatness and performance, but also painful reality of our country's history, the remarkable political and economic transition that we live through today, and the promise of shared growth and development for all South Africans in years ahead (The Wine Industry Transformation Charter, 2007:1).

The lived experience of farm workers in the Western Cape has been irrevocably influenced by slavery and the 'dop' system (Falletisch, 2008:1). The farm was home, work place and place of worship to the slaves while the farmer was simultaneously father, employer, master and judge. The story of the first farm labourers in the Western Cape is the story of slavery (Museum van de Caab, n.d). Slavery fundamentally changed the course of the Cape's history.

It transformed the social ethos of a society, defining freedom and status hierarchy. High status belonged to those who were free, kept slaves and did not work with their hands. From the arrival of the first slaves, slavery as an institution took a grip on social and economic life. (Giliomee, 2003:12)

Along with slavery came the 'dop' system; the use of alcohol as a currency exchanged between the slave and settler. According to Falletisch (2008:1), the legacy of slavery is the lack of power that people have over their own lives, and along with the legacy of addiction and dependency caused by the 'dop' system, farm labourers in the wine industry have been left with a dual legacy to overcome.

Solms-Delta wine estate in the Dwars River Valley has similarly had to deal with the legacy of slavery and the 'dop' system. Ever since 1690, the property has been planted with vineyards and over the next 200 years was farmed as a wine estate in the heart of the Cape rural interior, today known as the Winelands. Over the first two centuries that wine was made

on Delta, the hands that produced it were bound by shackles of slavery (Museum van de Caab, n.d). Although slavery was formally abolished in 1834, the coercive practice developed was to constrain emancipated slaves and to continue the economic viability of the Capes wine farms that had important legacies for rural social relations in South Africa (<http://www.nlsa.ac.za/vine/lieoftheland.html#dopsystem> 20 May 2010). The labour system on farms continued to be grounded in a combination of derisory wages, tied housing, chronic indebtedness and alcohol addiction, which all of which underpinned social relations of class and race.

It was not until new legislation was enacted in the 1990s that farm workers were protected by the law and were enabled to mobilise and organise themselves. Prior to 2004 and South Africa's first democratic election, Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) strategies were scattered in various pieces of legislation including the Promotion of Equity and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act of 2001, Extension of Security of Tenure Act of 1997, Restitution of Land Rights Act of 1994 Employment Equity Act of 1998, and The National Empowerment Fund Act of 1998 (McEwan & Bek, 2006:1023). Despite new legislation to protect and give rights to farm labourers, "with no access to capital, property or a means of accumulating wealth, rural people found themselves restrictively tied to the land [and] the people they laboured for through circumstances of extreme poverty" (Museum van de Caab). Lack of education, employment opportunities and access to services deprived farm labourers of their dignity and the ability to look after themselves (Republic of South Africa, Department of Welfare, 1997).

While the necessary legislative changes have been made (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996) and an Integrated Service Delivery Model (2006) was written up by government to improve social services, the process of recovery after decades of destruction requires the necessary implementation of this new legislation. The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) acknowledges the expectations of society to deliver welfare services and programmes to address the pressing needs that cannot be met in the short term. "These expectations are significant constraints and pose a great challenge to all parties to develop social security and social welfare programmes that are both sustainable and interlinked with other anti-poverty strategies"(Republic of South Africa. Department of Welfare, 1997:6). According to the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997), South Africa must invest in its people, through developing human capacity for increased productivity in order to eradicate

poverty. In the view of the Wine Industry Transformation Charter (2007:1), in order to accelerate change and development in the wine industry, a process of partnership is necessary. This process requires a partnership that includes the skilled winemakers and competent enterprises whose efforts help to fuel economic growth, the workers who labour in the vineyards and cellars and government, to create an enabling and appropriately regulated environment. These combined efforts will enable the industry to compete at a higher level in world markets; to open paths of opportunity for those previously excluded under apartheid; and to provide a decent way of life and human dignity to those who work on wine farms (The Wine Industry Transformation Charter, 2007:1).

1.2 PRELIMINARY STUDY AND RATIONALE

The researcher chose to conduct research on the Solms-Delta wine estate as she worked on this farm for four years (2007-2010) as a fulltime social worker. The researcher held the position of community worker and the main focus of her involvement was to build the capacity of the farm workers. The researcher was also the first social worker employed by Solms-Delta wine estate, thus no capacity-building initiatives had been initiated yet. She thus was involved with the assessment, planning, implementation and evaluation of all the capacity-building initiatives started on the wine estate right from the start. It therefore made sense for the researcher to go back and evaluate the true impact of capacity-building initiatives on this wine estate.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

According to Falletisch (2008:189), research should be conducted into appropriate and efficient social work practice on farms, with a specific focus on empowering farm workers to become masters of their own destinies. Falletisch (2008:189) furthermore recommends that research should be conducted into appropriate intervention strategies related to the social issues on farms. According to Gray, Mazibuko and O'Brien (1996:33), there is a need for indigenous research and literature for networking and learning from one another and for cooperation with other disciplines. In total, 49 studies regarding farm workers were found on the Nexus data base. There is a lack of research regarding capacity-building initiatives on farms, however. This study was therefore aimed at filling this gap and making a valuable

contribution to all those involved in capacity-building initiatives on wine farms in the Cape Winelands District.

In recent years, South African wine producers have faced profound changes, including the transition to democracy, deregulation of the industry, the extension of labour legislation to agriculture, and the opening of the international market (Nelson, Martin & Ewert, 2005:542). Along with these changes considerable pressure has been placed on farmers to act in a socially responsible manner. Despite political, social and economic changes that have been made to rectify the past inequalities (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997), social conditions on many farms remain unacceptable. Farm evictions continue to displace many rural dwellers each year with serious social consequences (The Wine Industry Transformation Charter, 2007:5). And while the 'dop' system and slavery have been abolished for many years, farm workers remain trapped in the cycle of poverty and dependency as the spill-over effect of apartheid (Falletisch, 2008: 2).

According to Gathiram (2005:123-130), empowerment is the key to any intervention in civil society, and it is also applicable to farms. For this, there has to be a change in power relation between individuals, groups and social institutions. Once farm workers no longer perceive themselves as victims and take charge of their lives, personal change will occur. Empowerment can also be described as capacity building (Kenneth, Thomas & Velthouse; 1990:667). James (2002:6) defines capacity building as "an ongoing process of helping people, organizations and societies improve and adapt to change around them". Learning should be at the heart of this process, as it is through learning that people may come to see themselves and their situation in different ways. It is this capacity to see differently that holds the prospect of beneficial social change (Kirk & Shutte, 2004:238). McEwan and Bek (2005:1032) state that empowerment initiatives may not be delivering radical outcomes yet, but that they are part of an important process of setting a tone throughout South African society, reinforcing the imperative of transformation and identifying some of the challenges that are situated within local, national and global power.

A study utilising the social development perspective to gain an understanding of the nature of capacity building initiatives that are influencing the quality of life of farm workers is therefore relevant.

1.4 BRIEF BACKGROUND TO SOLMS-DELTA

Solms-Delta is in many ways like any other wine farm in the Cape Winelands that has participated in capacity-building initiatives. However, what makes Solms-Delta unique is their approach to overcoming the adversities of the past. The study was conducted on Solms-Delta; therefore a brief background of the wine estate is presented in this section.

At Solms-Delta, the belief is that, if everyone takes responsibility on a micro level it will speed up recovery on a macro level. Situated on Solms-Delta, the Museum van de Caab tells the story of Apartheid through the voices of the people who experienced it. Many of the people who live and work on Solms-Delta today had the courage to share their lived experiences of Apartheid in a rural setting.

Their struggles through those darkest of times, their triumphs over extreme adversity, and their hopes for the future illustrated what many South Africans went through to create the democratic and free country we enjoy today. Their stories were representative but at the same time unique. (Museum van de Caab, n.d)

On Solms-Delta the history of South Africa has been embraced and the philosophy behind the way in which the farm is set up and managed is through deep understanding of the past and acknowledgment of the lived experiences of those who make farming possible on Solms-Delta today. Without true understanding of the past, we cannot build towards a brighter future. The Museum van de Caab was established as part of a renewal project on Solms-Delta and aimed not only to remember their history but also to change it. “Solms-Delta’s heartfelt mission is to embrace and celebrate all that it means to be South African” (<http://www.solms-delta.co.za> 23 May 2010).

The Wijn de Caab Trust was established in 2005 by the owners of Zandvliet-Delta (one of the farms that comprise Solms-Delta) farm to represent the interests of the historically disadvantaged residents and employees of the farm and its environs. The intention was that the Trust would be funded from profit sharing in Solms-Delta wine sales. In 2007, the owners of Zandvliet-Delta entered into a business relationship with the Trust and the new owners of Lubeck farm (now renamed Lubeck-Delta). Each partner (Zandvliet-Delta, Lubeck-Delta, and the Trust) now owns one third of the wine company Solms-Delta (Pty) Ltd. The Trust's

share in this venture was funded by loan finance, secured by the assets of the other two partners. The Trust then purchased a portion of the farm Deltameer, so that each of the shareholders in Solms-Delta owned a piece of land which could be leased to and developed by Solms-Delta. The Wijn de Caab Trust is run by a board of trustees that consists of a multidisciplinary team constituted of professionals in various disciplines as well as members of the beneficiary community.

The ultimate aim of the Wijn de Caab Trust is to break the cycle of poverty and dependency among farm dwellers by making it possible for those who would like to eventually leave farm life to do so. It is anticipated that this will apply especially to the children of current farm residents who do not wish to become farm workers themselves. To this end, the Trust aims to broaden horizons, create opportunities and minimise burdens for its beneficiaries through various capacity-building initiatives. Capacity building is a process and learning must be at the heart of this process as it is through this learning that people may come to see themselves and their situation in different ways. This kind of transformation perspective enables people to engage reality with new eyes; it is this capacity to see differently that holds the prospect of beneficial change (Kirk & Shutte, 2004:238).

The Trust is striving to fulfil this basic aim through providing financial assistance for accessing education on a primary, secondary and tertiary level; providing primary health care that is not covered by the state; improving quality of life; and assisting those in distress. Ultimately the Trust also aims to assist with independent home ownership. The first objective of the Trust as stated in the Deed of Trust is welfare and humanitarian considerations.¹ The focus is on community development for the poor and needy persons in the beneficiary community and anti-poverty initiatives, including: promotion of community based projects relating to self-help, empowerment, capacity building and skills development. These aims are in line with those of the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) and will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

The beneficiary community consists of both primary and secondary beneficiaries. The primary beneficiaries of the Trust include all those who are living on and or working on the farm and their direct dependants, i.e. their spouses or life partners and children under the age

¹ Deed of Trust between Wijn de Caab Trust and Trustees, 2005:5

of 19. The secondary beneficiaries of the Trust include the broader community, i.e. the historically disadvantaged communities of the region surrounding the three Solms-Delta farms. The secondary beneficiaries will increasingly benefit as the Trust becomes financially able to broaden the scope of its aims to break the cycle of poverty and dependency in the Dwars River Valley. In the interim, the secondary beneficiaries are assisted mainly by a sister trust, namely the Delta Trust, which is currently funded by a British charity under the aegis of the owners of Lubeck-Delta. It is hoped that the Wijn de Caab Trust will eventually share in the burden of funding the Delta Trust.

1.5 AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of the study was to gain an understanding from a social development perspective of the nature of capacity-building initiatives on Solms-Delta that have influenced the quality of the lives of farm workers.

The following objectives were formulated:

- to give an overview of the historical background of farm workers on wine farms in the Western Cape
- to explain the socio-economic circumstances of farm workers on wine farms in the Western Cape
- to describe the nature of capacity-building initiatives to address the socio-economic situation of farm workers from a social development perspective
- to explore how initiatives to build capacity have contributed to the quality of life of farm workers on Solms-Delta
- to present guidelines for service providers who are involved in social development initiatives that build capacity for farm workers on wine farms in the Western Cape

1.6 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

The following concepts are clarified for the purposes of this study:

1.6.1 Capacity building

James (2002:6) defines capacity building as “an ongoing process of helping people, organizations and societies improve and adapt to change around them”. According to James

(1998:2), capacity building addresses all areas of economic, socio-cultural, political and environmental processes through a holistic approach. James (2002:6) also states the grassroots effort must begin with the family unit where learning is at the heart of this process; it is through learning that people may come to see themselves and their situation as different from their previous situation. This kind of transformation perspective enables people to engage with new eyes and it is this capacity to see with new eyes that holds the prospect of beneficial social change (Kirk & Shutte, 2004:238).

The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997:6) defines capacity building as “...skills development in a wide range of areas such as specialist knowledge and skills, popular education and training and social competency promotion” (Republic of South Africa. Department of Welfare, 1997:6).

1.6.2 Initiatives

For the purpose of this study, initiatives will refer to all activities, projects, programmes, training or interventions.

1.6.3 Programmes

For the purpose of this study programmes are designed to impact on the substantive social problems. The term programmed is used as an umbrella concept which includes all types of services, facilities, social benefits and community-based development strategies (Republic of South Africa, Department of Welfare, 1997).

1.6.4 Farm workers

Farm workers are regarded as those individuals employed on commercial farms who provide physical labour.

1.6.5 Solms-Delta

Solms-Delta is a wine estate situated in the Dwars River Valley in the Cape Winelands District where the research study was conducted.

1.6.6 Social development perspective

Midgley (1995:22) conceived social development as a “process of planned social change designed to promote the well-being of the population as a whole in conjunction with a dynamic process of economic development”.

According to Homfeldt and Reutlings (2009),

Social development pursues an alternative approach focusing on the empowerment and autonomy of actors, and also taking account of the structural obstacles that confront them as they shape their daily lives in the sense of learning to develop their selves. This means that development always conceives within a twin framework of self- and other development. Social development represents a holistic approach that is non static and process-oriented.

According to the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997), “The ultimate objective of social development is to bring about sustained improvement in the well-being of the individual, family, community and society at large.”

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In the following section the research method is clarified.

1.7.1 Research approach

A combination of a qualitative and a quantitative approach was employed to realise the research objectives (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005:74; Babbie & Mouton, 2004:50-54). The quantitative approach was useful for creating the profile and demographic background of participants, while the qualitative approach was used to obtain the views of the participants about how capacity-building initiatives have contributed to the quality of their lives (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005:74). A combination of the quantitative and qualitative approach was used to gain a true representation of the social realities.

1.7.2 Research design

Both exploratory and descriptive designs were applied in the study. As indicated by Babbie and Mouton (2004:79), exploratory research is conducted to explore a topic, or provide basic familiarity with a topic. This approach is typically used when a researcher wants to examine a new interest or when the subject of study itself is relatively new. An exploratory study answers to a ‘what’ question, leading to insight and comprehension rather than the collection of details and accurate and replicable data, thus a qualitative element is crucial when conducting an exploratory study (Babbie & Mouton, 2004:79-80). This study aimed to determine ‘what’ the nature of formal training and capacity-building initiatives on Solms-

Delta have been and to explore how the training and programmes have influenced the quality of the lives of the participants.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2004:80), there are three methods by means of which exploratory research may be conducted, namely: “A review of the related social sciences and other pertinent literature; a survey of people who have had practical experience of the programme being studied; and an analysis of insight-stimulation examples”. These three methods were used for the purposes of this study

The experiences of the individuals involved in capacity building initiatives were documented within the context of the descriptive design. A major purpose of many social scientific studies is to describe situations and events. Descriptive research can be both qualitative and quantitative and is more likely to refer to a more intensive examination of phenomena and their deeper meaning. For the purpose of this study, there is a large element of description as scientific descriptions are typically more accurate and precise than casual ones (Babbie & Mouton, 2004:80; De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2007:106).

1.7.3 Research method

In this section the research method is presented.

1.7.3.1 Literature study

According to De Vos *et al.* (2007:127), “A literature review refers to the scrutiny of all relevant sources of information”. It is necessary to conduct a literature review in order to gain a clearer understanding of the nature and the meaning of the research field. Mouton (2001:87) points out that a literature review aims to avoid duplication and he suggests that ‘gaps’ in the research field can thus be filled.

For the purpose of this study an in-depth literature review was conducted within the research field to establish a frame of reference as the departure point for proceeding with the research. Both local and international literature from the social sciences and relevant legislative documents were reviewed.

1.7.3.2 Population and sampling

The population for a study is that group of the population about whom a conclusion is to be drawn. As it is almost always impossible to study all the members of the population, a sample

has to be selected (Babbie & Mouton, 2004:100). The term sample always implies the simultaneous existence of a population of which the sample is the smaller section or set of individuals selected from the population. A sample thus comprises elements of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:193-194).

The population and criteria for inclusion in this study were as follows: the participants had to be eighteen years of age or older, they could be male or female, and had to be currently employed by Solms-Delta. The participants had to be directly involved in either formal training provided by Solms-Delta or be part of one or more of the capacity-building programmes offered on the wine estate. This meant that the participants themselves had to have completed formal training in their specific line of work and/or be actively involved in a programme for longer than three months. The participants were required to speak only on behalf of themselves. The size of the universe was approximately 114 individuals.

“The issue of the minimum size of a sample is repeatedly addressed in literature. It is generally stated that the larger the population, the smaller the percentage of that population the sample needs to be, and vice versa” (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:194).

Non-probability sampling is conducted when the researcher cannot select the kind of probability sample used in large scale surveys. Availability or purposive sampling was used for the purpose of this study (Babbie & Mouton, 2004:166), as the researcher was reliant on participants who were available and willing to participate. Thus the sample size for this study was 21 participants.

1.7.3.3 Data-gathering instruments

The research instrument used was face-to-face interviews with farm workers who had participated in formal training provided by Solms-Delta in their specific line of work and/or farm workers who had been involved in one or more capacity-building programmes facilitated by the wine estate. These interviews were conducted to obtain research data by means of a semi-structured interview (Babbie & Mouton, 2004:251). This method gave the researcher and the participants more flexibility and the researcher was able to follow up more significant avenues.

De Vos *et al.* (2007:296) explain that “[s]emi-structured interviews are especially suitable where one is particularly interested in complexity or process or where an issue is controversial or personal”. For the purpose of this study the personal experiences of the farm workers were of utmost importance in order to establish their experience of the empowerment that has taken place and the development perspective which was implemented in the capacity-building initiatives. The a semi-structured interview process was considered the most appropriate means for investigating how the initiatives enhanced the quality of life of participants.

The semi-structured questionnaire was formulated in a manner that explored existing capacity-building programmes/initiatives and how these were valued by the participants. The questionnaire was based on the literature review relating to social development and capacity building. A set of predetermined questions in an interview schedule supported the semi-structured interview used by the researcher; these interviews were guided by the schedule rather than dictated by it (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:296). The schedule contained both open-ended questions to which the participants supplied their own answers and closed-ended questions for which they selected their answers from a list that was provided (Babbie & Mouton, 2004:233). Interviews were conducted in the participants’ home language, which was Afrikaans, with the exception of one interview conducted in English as the participant’s home language was Xhosa. The researcher made accurate notes as the participants spoke, having gained their consent. The researcher then read out what she wrote down for the participant to check the accuracy of the data (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:298). The researcher, as a qualified social worker, offered the participants an opportunity to debrief, if they wished it, after they had participated in the investigation in order to rectify possible misconceptions and to terminate the session (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:66).

1.7.3.4 Data analysis

Data analysis is a process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:333). The data analysis model as described by Marshal and Rossman in De Vos *et al.* (2007: 334) was used in the study. This model includes organising the data; reading and writing memos; generating categories, themes and patterns; formulating linkages among the patterns; and presenting a research report.

1.7.3.5 Ethical considerations

The researcher is registered with the South African Council for Social Service Professions and has to adhere to the code of ethics which includes issues such as confidentiality and clients' self-determination. This study was approved by the Ethical Committee of Stellenbosch University and the researcher has completed and handed in the necessary documentation.

Informed consent, confidentiality and debriefing were all taken into account when the study was conducted. The participants were offered the opportunity to debrief after the interview. None of them wanted to. They all have access to a social worker should they want to debrief at a later stage.

1.7.3.6 Data verification

Authors (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:345-347) note that all research must answer to the norms that stand as criteria against which trustworthiness of a project can be evaluated. These norms are credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability; these norms establish the 'true value' of the study.

- Credibility

The goal of credibility is to demonstrate that the inquiry was conducted in a manner as to insure that the subject was accurately identified and described (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:346). The researcher used professional interviewing techniques in order to enhance the credibility.

- Transferability

Transferability is the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts, settings, or groups (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:346). The researcher therefore provides a dense description of the research methodology employed.

- Dependability

This is the alternative to reliability; positive ideas of reliability assume an unchanging universe where investigations could quite logically be replicable. The reliability of this study was achieved by the systematic and accurate documentation of data.

- Conformability

Conformability captures the traditional concept of objectivity. Authors stress the need to ask whether the findings of the study could be confirmed by other studies. By doing so, they remove evaluation from some inherent characteristic of the researcher

(objectivity) and the place it squarely on the data. Thus the qualitative criterion is: Do the data help confirm the general findings and the implications thereof? This is the appropriate qualitative criterion (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:347). This was done by allowing participants to express their views and opinions with regard to the research subject without any interference by the researcher.

1.7.4 Limitations of the study

The following limitations were expected to be experienced by the researcher.

- Limitations related to availability of research

While the legislation pertaining to farm workers in South Africa has changed, it was difficult to find academic literature addressing the actual lived experience of farm workers. Literature on capacity building and empowerment programmes/initiatives on farms is also limited.

- Operational limitation

The researcher was restricted by the number of participants willing to disclose their experiences. Interviews are time-consuming and tiring and many of the Solms-Delta employees had already been interviewed by media regarding their participation in capacity-building programmes. There is a high level of illiteracy amongst participants, thus the way in which questions were asked needed to be clear and simple. The researcher was required to explain the questions repeatedly and set out them differently if they were not fully understood the first time.

- Design limitations

Due to the unique character of every farm and set of individuals, their strengths and weaknesses, transferability may be limited.

1.8 PRESENTATION

The study is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 serves as an introduction. Chapter 2 gives an overview of the historical background of farm workers on wine farms in the Western Cape. Chapter 3 presents an explanation of the socio-economic circumstances of farm workers on wine farms in the Western Cape. Chapter 4 describes the nature of capacity-building initiatives that can address the socio-economic situation from a social development perspective.

Chapter 5 explores how capacity building initiatives on Solms-Delta have influenced the quality of life of farm workers on an individual level, group level and community level. Based on the findings of the empirical investigation, Chapter 6 presents guidelines for service providers on wine estates along with the conclusion and recommendations about capacity building initiatives for farm workers on wine farms in the Western Cape.

CHAPTER 2

THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF FARM WORKERS ON WINE FARMS IN THE WESTERN CAPE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africa has a distressing history of land dispossession based on racial discrimination, which has resulted in a highly unequal pattern of land ownership and widespread rural poverty (Crane, 2006:1035). When the first democratically elected government came into power in 1994, about 60,000 white farmers had access to 86% of the country's land, while over 13 million African people had been forced onto the remaining 14%.

The story of the first farm labourers in the Western Cape is the story of slavery (Randle, u.p.). Slavery helped to create a wine industry divided between white masters and the black servants drenched in the culture of paternalism. The contradictory picture of the 'official' romantic, sanitised wine farm is in vast contrast to the hidden world of coercive production (A workers' audit of the working and living conditions on selected wine farms in the Western Cape referred to by Brown, Du Toit & Jacobs, 2003).

The purpose of this chapter is to meet the first objective of the study, namely to give an overview of the historical background of farm labourers on wine farms in the Western Cape. Falletisch (2008:21) states that an understanding of the present begins by looking at the past and understanding the relationship between the two. In this chapter an attempt is made to unpack the legacy left by slavery, land dispossession and subjugation as a means of explaining the socio-economic circumstances of farm labourers on wine farms in the Western Cape. Thus this chapter begins with an overview of the lifestyle of farm labourers, given their historical background; the consequences of the historical ills are explored and the background of the legislation pertaining to farm labourers is given.

2.2 THE LIFESTYLE OF FARM LABOURERS

According to Du Toit (1993:315), farms are not 'factories in the field'; the isolation creates a unique set of social relations. The consequences of farm labourers living on the farm have meant that these families have become dependent on the farmer in every respect of their

material existence: access to money, housing, water, electricity, food and drink are all mediated by the physical and social isolation of the farm worker.

This section of the chapter comprises an overview of the history of farm labourers in the Western Cape, including the legacy of slavery, subjugation of the Khoikoi, the evolution of segregation and apartheid as an institution.

2.2.1 Historical background

Since its colonisation, the Cape was bound up with slavery and the world of the farm has been one that binds workers and farmer together in a complex and intimate way (Du Toit 1993:316). While this relationship brought some advantages to both farmer and farm labourer, it also created dependence and vulnerability. Du Toit (1993:315) states that historians like Pam Scully and Robert Ross have pointed out the deep similarities between farm dwellers' conditions of life and those on the slave estates where their forebears worked. The legacy of slavery is very much apparent in the colonial and apartheid eras, and resonates to the present.

2.2.1.1 Legacy of slavery in the Western Cape

Slavery was introduced by the Dutch East Indian Company, the VOC, under the leadership of Jan van Riebeeck in 1652. Van Riebeeck arrived at the Cape to establish the refreshment station for fleets travelling along the African coast. Land was relatively abundant and conditions for agricultural settlements were not insurmountable. The nomadic nature of the indigenous people conflicted with settlers' requirement, thus the Khoikhoi were unsuitable as labourers (Falletisch 2008:22). Having access to land, the VOC needed a large, cheap and submissive labour force quickly and therefore imported slaves from East Africa, Madagascar, India and The East Indies.

Randle (u.p.) states that, whatever their origin, almost all slaves were orphaned by the slave trade, either separated from their family when taken from their home country or when put up for auction – the actual process of enslavement was a traumatic and harrowing experience. By divorcing slaves from the means of subsistence and isolating them socially, slave owners sought to make their subjects compliant or, at least, easily cowed.

On arrival at the Cape, the slaves would be transported to their new owners. At this stage they may have been separated from other family members. Some of the slaves may have been kept in Cape Town while others were sent with their new owner to the rural agricultural districts of the Hottentots Holland, Stellenbosch and Drakenstein. (Randle, u.p.).

After the auction, the slaves had no guarantee of where they would be placed. “They were privately-sold and transferred as material possessions – some handed down through family inheritance, others sold as part of business transactions many were sold out of their district if their owners viewed them as troublesome and disruptive to their fellow slaves” (Randle, u.p). Between 1652 and 1808, sixty-three thousand slaves were imported to the Cape (Armstrong & Worden, 189:137 in Falletisch, 2008:22). Slaves were considered working capital and kept for economic purposes; “like other valuable property, mortgages and loans were taken out against them so that, if not repaid in due course, they could be repossessed and assigned to new owners” (Randle, u.p). The more slaves a farmer had, the greater their output. From the early eighteenth century to well into the nineteenth century wine farmers owned the largest number of slaves. Thus it is no surprise that the legacy of slavery lives longest in the agricultural sector (Falletisch, 2008:22).

Every aspect of a slave’s life was determined by his or her master; their masters stripped them of their birth name and gave them new ones, thus stripping them of their identity. Food, clothing and shelter were given in return for servitude. The conduct of slaves was dictated by the slave code of 1754, which prescribed every aspect of their being. Torture and punishment were accepted as the right of the slave owners (Falletisch, 2008:22-28). Being a slave meant “a person who is legal property of another and is bound to absolute obedience” (The Concise Oxford Dictionary: 1995). Although slaves were valuable property of the slave owning class, it remained a brutal and traumatic life for most. Statutes of 1740 and 1754 created penalties of “death without mercy” for slaves who raised a hand to their owner (Dooling 2007:42).

However, slavery as a legal institution did not last forever. As decreed from London, emancipation from slavery was to take effect on 1 December 1834 (Randle, u.p), although it took the Cape Colony forty three years to abolish slavery (1795-1838). Ex-slaves owners received monetary reward and were able to adapt by using seasonal employment based on the newly expanded proletariat. Without any economic compensation to slaves, however, their options were extremely limited; as Van der Roos (2005) argued, this meant “free to be poor” (Falletisch, 2008:34). Slavery was thus replaced by paternalism and peonage on farms and was no less effective in maintaining control of labour for land owners.

From the above it is clear that slavery still resonates in the current relationship between farm owner and farm labourers. Du Toit states (2004:9) that slavery shaped society at the Cape in profound ways, and left its mark on farm owners as well as workers. In the following section

subjugation of the Khoikhoi is examined as this goes hand in hand with the history of farm labourers and land distribution in South Africa.

2.2.1.2 Subjugation of the Khoikhoi

At the same time that the VOC was importing slaves to overcome the labour shortage at the Cape, local demand for food increased the demand for labour: the company officials, their white servants, imported slaves, and an expanding free burgher population were added to by a proletariat made up of the newly landless Khoikhoi.

Before permanent settlement there was parity between European explorers and the indigenous populations, even though barter was highly favourable to the explorers. Groups of the Khoikhoi would manipulate their relationship with Europeans and their superior weaponry, for example to gain protection from other groups of Khoikhoi (Elphick, 1985:81). But with colonisation the escalating demand for livestock went beyond the Khoikhoi economic interest, so that the colonists had to coerce the Khoikhoi into “bartering” to supply livestock, as well as to prevent them from harbouring slaves and to prevent theft (Elphick, 1985:103). The Khoikhoi were squeezed by a decrease in livestock holdings and reduced access to land. This, in turn, created a demand for free burghers to supply the shortfall in livestock, although the farmer’s primary task was to grow wheat to make the colony self-sufficient. By the late 1660s the outer districts of the Cape Colony were making up the majority of their labour force with Khoikhoi (Elphick, 1985:179) whose relations with free burghers can be described as feudalistic. The Khoikhoi acted as herders initially, but later took on all forms of agricultural labour as labour tenants of the colonists.

In the early years of the Dutch colonisation, Khoikhoi men often worked for the settler farmers on a seasonal basis while their women and children remained in kraals. As their access to grazing land and watering places for cattle became increasingly restricted by colonial occupation of the region, these kraals struggled to sustain the people who lived in them. After the Khoikhoi fought and lost two wars against the Dutch in the late 17th century, they increasingly started to move onto farms (Randle, u.p).

In one scene from the epic novel ‘Islands’, Dan Sleight (2002) describes the politicking between Van Riebeeck and Herrie, one of the Khoikhoi who had been abducted and later returned to the Cape after he had learned English. In one sense, although Herrie had been

abducted, imprisoned, and disposed of his land by Whites, he is still free and able to bargain to further his own interests (Sleigh, 2002:109). The historical record concurs to the extent that Herrie was double-crossing Van Riebeeck (Elphick, 1985:105) and gathering cattle for himself, but Van Riebeeck turned a blind eye due to the colony's need for livestock; in the early years of colonisation Herrie was able to exploit Van Riebeeck's need of an intermediary to intercede with other Khoikhoi groups. The novel covers a single generation in which the social relations rapidly transform to the detriment of the indigenous population.

Herrie's daughter is a servant in the employ of Van Riebeeck and acts as translator between her father and Van Riebeeck. Her complete disintegration in both her roles as servant and a member of Khoikhoi society is imagined and described in the novel and the historical record. The collapse of the indigenous population can be attributed to five factors: (1) the loss of livestock; (2) the drain of labour to the colony; (3) the gradual loss of political and economic independence; (4) the dispossession of traditional pasture; and (5) the loss of their traditional culture (Elphick, 1985:237). While the loss of land and livestock accelerated the movement of Khoikhoi to the Castle (Cape Town) as landless peasants, there was a parallel, racist agenda that sought to dehumanise the Khoikhoi and portrayed the indigenous population as godless and subhuman (Elphick, 1985:195). Elphick (1985:204) suggests that miscegenation was minimal at this time since the Khoikhoi's kinship ties still bound them together and slaves were more available. But the fact that the use of the language of the Khoikhoi declined from the mid-1700s (Elphick, 1985:213) is a sure indication that, as a distinct culture, the Khoikhoi were being assimilated into the expanding colonial order as farm labourers on par with the slaves.

In many ways, the Khoikhoi would come to suffer the same economic and social restrictions of slaves due to the loss of their way of life. It was also true that the prohibition of the oceanic slave trade in 1808 exacerbated the Cape's persistent labour shortage and resulted in a considerable rise in the price of slaves. The government responded to the crisis by sanctioning the apprenticeship of 'free' children in 1812. According to the amended 'Hottentot Proclamation', Khoikhoi children could be indentured from the age of eight for a period of 10 years (Clift 1995:23).

From the above it is evident that, at this point in history, both imported slaves and the Khoikhoi were enduring hardships familiar to many farm labourers in the Western Cape. Ex-

slave indigenous people developed into a class of their own. In the following section the evolution of segregation will be depicted.

2.2.1.3 The evolution of segregation

The steady rise of a white colonial settler society in the Cape – population records show that there were 259 company employees in 1679, 2000 burgers in 1717 and, by 1793, 13830 white colonists (Dooling, 2007:23) – created a unique set of social relations. The control by the VOC as a single-channel market meant that agrarian development relied on favourable prices, such that, 40% of the 570 burghers whose fate is known, abandoned farming in 1707. Within a decade, however, there was sharp increase of freehold land grants as slaves and access to livestock became available (Dooling, 2007:20).

British domination in the Cape replaced the ailing VOC and access to the British wine market made farming profitable again from 1806 (Worden, 1992:33), but with the loss of slavery, European wine again became competitive. The end of the slave apprenticeship in December of 1838 affected that year's grain harvest (Worden, 1992:34) causing major disruptions and requiring a change in labour procurement that was effected via state power. The Colonial Secretary dismissed pleas from missionaries to make land available to freed slaves in November of 1837, stating that "the most desirable result would be that they would be induced to work for wages as free labourers" (Dooling, 2007:36). It is remarkable that no mention of colour appeared in Cape legislation between emancipation and the conferring of responsible government in 1872. However, by the end of this period most Christian churches, government schools, and prisons were practicing segregation (Bickford-Smith, 1992:48). Yet it is patently clear that legislation like The Masters and Servants Act (1856) rejected social levelling and was directed at all people of colour (Falletisch, 2008:35). In the rural areas, where the majority of the Colony's population dwelt, the Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1841 was bolstered in a post-representative government Act of the same name in 1856, increasing the severity of punishments and widening the definition of offences (Worden, 1992:37). With abolition and dispossession, farm labour had become proletarian, operating as seasonal labour based on Mission land or in urban centres, while those without any means or motivation continued to live indebted and often inebriated on the farm.

The direct link between town and country for labour enhanced a heterogeneous, socially complex web that led Ross (1992:40) to observe that

...in Cape Town, more than anywhere else in South Africa, social relations have never been a direct function of economic activity, but have been heavily influenced by all sorts of other considerations, including physiognomy, clothing, language, religious affiliation, even food.

Social prejudice vilifying the increase in interracial marriage, as noted in the 1893 Labour Commission (Ross, 1992:52) was countered by the rejection of the cultural hegemony of whites by a multiracial proletariat. However, the logic of social privilege and economic power through land holding led to specific legislation attacking the franchise by raising economic barriers and disqualifying completely 'tribalised' Africans (Ross, 1992:48) and prefiguring Apartheid social engineering. Being part colonial and part industrialising state made the Western Cape a melting pot of social stratification. Isolation on the wine farms was not as intense as in the hinterland of the semi-arid areas of the Western and Eastern Cape, but access to land was defined by race through the Land Acts of 1913 and 1936; in 1923 the principle of separation of the races in urban areas was introduced and in 1937 the Natives Law Amendment Act effectively prohibited access to Africans (Thwale, 2006:58).

The evolution of segregation led to what today is known as apartheid. Thus this is the focus of the next section.

2.2.1.4 Apartheid

Many establishments had been informally segregated by this time, but it was only under the leadership of the National Party that laws were passed to enforce total racial separation. The major innovation of apartheid was the Population Registration Act of 1950. On the basis of this Act, South Africa's population was officially divided into three racial groups: 'White', 'Coloured', and 'Native' (Randle, u.p), race became the predominant social characteristic of South African society. One of the main planks of Apartheid was to tie down and isolate workers on farms (Atkinson, 2007:26) to ensure control of land was fixed by race.

A raft of legislation was introduced to separate the races: the Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act (1949), the Immorality Act (1950), the Population Registration Act (1950) and the Group Areas Act (1950) also defined access to work by the god-like determination of one's race: 'non-white' persons over 16 years of age had to carry an identity card that specified their racial category. There were even 'race inspectors' to determine the awkward cases.

Access to all resources was now defined by skin colour and in 1953 the Separate Amenities Act was passed that enforced segregation in almost every facility imaginable. “From schools to park benches, public beach lavatories, restaurants and pedestrian subways, usage was determined by the colour of your skin” (Randle, u.p), isolating and alienating cultures by skin colour, but ultimately by socio-economic status. The colour bar reinforced social prejudice, polarising workers and owners. Arguably, the most insidious aspects of Apartheid policy were to withhold resources on the basis of race. The Apartheid state also used unequal access to create fear in the ‘haves’ while envy boiled among the ‘have-nots’. A transparent attempt to deepen divisions in the working class was the creation of various bodies that gave Coloureds token representation in the ‘white’ portion of South Africa, e.g. the Coloured Persons Representative Council Amendment Act (1968) and, later, the RSA Constitution Act (1983). The state legislated away the right of ‘Africans’ to residence in the Western Cape, providing a backup for seasonal labour requirements in the Bantustan homelands; ‘Coloureds’ made up the predominant workforce but they, too, constituted an excess labour force based in the surrounding towns and cities. The result was interracial antagonism based on privileged access to work in the Western Cape. Forced removal legislation was tightened up in 1964, through the Black Laws Amendment Act and saw the creation of economic refugees within the borders of South Africa’s own ‘independent states’ (Thwale, 2006:58) affecting many African ‘surplus’ workers based in the Western Cape.

According to Randle (u.p.) every individual’s personal experience of apartheid was different, but everyone was subject to the legalities of segregation and racism. In the rural context, people who had worked and lived on farms alongside their ‘masters’, possibly for generations, continued to do so under the new segregation laws. The provision of labour still remained essential for the success of farms run along feudal lines. Farm labourers lived in daily fear of being evicted from their homes on a whim by their employer (Randle, u.p). Despite the abolition of slavery, the legacy of a racially polarised, divided society characterised by an unequal distribution of power and segregation lived on.

So now, for the most part, workers classified Coloured form the backbone of the permanent workforce on Western Cape wine farms (Du Toit, 1993:49). The coloured relations within apartheid further stratifies labour relations and impacts upon the consciousness of workers. The eminent psychiatrist Frances Ames quotes an ex-domestic worker that left her employment “Missus, before I came to you I worked for a policeman in the country. We both

spoke Afrikaans and he understood me. When I got drunk in his house he beat me up. That helped me” (Ames, 2001:15). This is just one example of how non-white people were so disempowered and incapacitated that their survival depended on their belief that they deserved the treatment they got. Inequality of opportunity and structural imbalances were built into South African agriculture from its inception. The damage it has caused will take decades to reverse.

Internalising their abuse to the point where each individual’s experience may have differed, farm labourers as a group formed the lowest level of society and their experience derives from the forces that slavery and dispossession inflicted upon them as a class and as a social stratum. In the following section the consequences of these historical ills will be discussed.

2.3 CONSEQUENCES OF HISTORICAL ILLS

The history of farm workers and their current social and economic problems are products of: colonialism, segregation, and apartheid (Atkinson, 2007:4). The specificity of challenges in the Western Cape, and wine farming in particular, are not reducible to any one prime evil, but act as a set of interrelated conditions that resulted from the history of discrimination and dispossession.

While consequences of apartheid are complex and enormous, only the most relevant social ills will be discussed for the purposes of this study. The consequences of the dop system, paternalism and patriarchy, poverty and feelings of entitlement are laid out in the following sections.

2.3.1 Dop system

Alcohol has been a currency of exchange since the arrival of the Dutch at the Cape. The white settlers and sailors would barter and trade alcohol, tobacco and other western objects or ‘luxuries’ for sheep and cattle with the Khoikhoi (Falletisch, 2008:1). According to Falletisch (2008:3), it was these luxuries that in many instances lead to alcohol abuse, dependency, self-destruction, violence, family neglect and deprivation.

Alcohol was a prized commodity and was used for supplying and entertaining sailors, for rations and in bartering. The dop system was also used as a means of controlling the slaves,

whose labour in the agricultural setting is associated with the slave bell, still seen on many wine farms today. On large farms a slave bell was rung to call the slaves to work and to summon them from the fields, it was also rung at times when slaves would receive their 'dop' or tot (a measure of wine). Wine was used to pacify slaves and entice the Khoikhoi into wage labour. This incentive scheme became known as the 'dopstelsel' (tot system). Through this system both slaves and Khoi labourers became attached to their masters (Randle, u.p) leading to over indulgence and dependency. Although use of the dop-system became illegal In the later part of the twentieth century (Falletisch, 2008:2), the damage had been done and generations of farm labourers had become dependent on alcohol. Forty years after the dop system was abolished we are nowhere near to erasing the legacy.

Alcoholism and the physical and psychologically induced scarring was a potent weapon used by land owners to intimidate and control farm workers, thereby severely curtailing opportunities to enter other trades or move away from the source of their 'fix'. The dop system also assured a ready market for a low quality product that was subject to the vagaries of wildly fluctuating markets (www.soundaffects-products.s3.amazonaws.com/9-fairtrade-south-africa.pdf:1).

In a study conducted in 1998 in the Stellenbosch district on the incidence of alcoholism among farm labourers it was reported that 65 to 87% of interviewed farm labourers could be classified as problem drinkers, 42% reported having consumed alcohol during pregnancy and 5.6% of children were found to have foetal alcohol syndrome (Dopstop, 1998 in Falletisch 2008:2). The Western Cape's rate of foetal alcohol syndrome – 60 per 1000 on average – is the highest record anywhere in the world (A workers' audit of the working and living conditions on selected wine farms in the Western Cape).

According to Viljoen (2008:20), foetal alcohol syndrome (FAS) results when mothers consume excessive amounts of alcohol during pregnancy. It is a permanent condition causing behavioural problems, learning difficulties, brain damage, hyperactivity and stunted growth. Falletisch (2008:69) states that between 5 and 9% of children on farms in the Western Cape suffer this condition. This ranks among the highest rates of FAS in the world. While some children may outgrow the physical signs of FAS, the behavioural conditions are permanent (Viljoen, 2008:20).

Falletisch (2008:58) mentions London (2005), who emphasises the need for development programmes and organised efforts to empower people to overcome their dependency on alcohol. Capacity building is crucial to overcoming the legacy of the dop system.

2.3.2 Paternalism and patriarchy

Another aspect of the historical weight of the farm labourer's life was paternalism and patriarchy which governed every aspect of their lives. According to Du Toit (1993:314), paternalism is distinguished by an 'organic' concept of the farm as a family, with the farmer occupying a central position of unchallengeable authority. While farming in the Western Cape has in many ways been modernised, something of the old feudal-cum-slave estate still survives.

According to Du Toit (1992: 1-2), paternalism continues to be the central part of farm life, binding farmer and worker in complex and intimate relationships. While this may benefit both the farmer and worker in some ways, it has many negative consequences. While the farmer may receive loyalty from 'their' labourers and the labourers in return are 'protected' (i.e. provided for) by the farmer, a culture of disempowerment and dependency has evolved which breeds vulnerability and powerlessness (Du Toit, 1992:2).

Paternalist ideology does not recognise slaves and servants as mature human beings. Although slaves and servants were morally entitled to protection and care, they were, in most respects, entirely subject to the final authority of their white 'masters' (Du Toit, 2003:4). While farm labourers are no longer slaves and servants and by law are viewed as South African citizens with equal rights enshrined in The South African Constitution (1996), they are in reality still subject to the final authority of the white farmer in many instances, both as wage labourer but also as a tenant of the landowner.

According to Du Toit (1992:10), wine and fruit farm paternalism comprises more than a discourse about the skewed relation between workers and farmers. It is also a discourse on race in which racial and social identities are virtually interchangeable. Farm labourers often refer to the farmers as "ons witman" (our white man) while the farmer in turn talks about "ons kleurlinge" (our coloureds). Du Toit (1002:10) states that, while the farm may be seen as a community of sorts, it is a profoundly unequal one.

The relationship between farm owners and farm labourers is derived from the Calvinist ideology of the earliest colonists, with a sub-text that subjugated all women. Women were doubly oppressed, through their position as concubines to the whites or the chattels of their own men folk and by their race. This can be understood through the “notion of ideological state apparatuses i.e. social institutions such as media, family, the educational system, language and the political system [that] produce the tendency in people to behave and think in socially acceptable ways”. Social norms are not neutral or objective; they have instead been developed in the interests of those with social power (Kirton, 2010:23). According to ‘A workers’ audit of the working and living conditions on selected wine farms in the Western Cape’ (n.d: 25), this oppression permeates all sectors of women’s lives, both in the home and the work place. Within this context, women are especially vulnerable to exploitation. Statistics show that 51% of farm workers included the services of a male worker’s female partner in his employment contract by ‘tacit agreement’; 60% of farmers insisted that the female partner also be available to work; only 37% of farmers interviewed the female partner before employing her; 52% of women interviewed as part of the study reported that their housing was linked to their male partner’s employment; 48.6% of farmers indicated that if the male partner died or left the farm for any reason his family would also have to leave (Parenzee & Smythe, 2003:4). It can be deduced from these statistics that women had no say in their own lives, no security and certainly no chance of independence.

Sexual harassment, domestic violence and abuse are also part of the daily life experience of many women farm workers. In the work place, gender inequalities persist in terms of the types of work and remuneration received. Where men and women do the same jobs, men are paid more. In supervisory positions, for example, men earn up to 50% more than women in the same position. The sexual division of labour is firmly entrenched on farms; with 78% of the tasks in the ‘general employment’ category being defined as ‘women’s work’, which is often regarded as the lowest grade of work (A workers’ audit of the working and living conditions on selected wine farms in the Western Cape, n.d:25).

From the above one can conclude that paternalism and patriarchy are central to the daily lives and functioning of farm labourers. Women were the worst off and at the mercy of not only the farm owner but also their own men folk. Black women are subject to the degradation meted out by whites on all blacks but also through the internalisation of the abuse and oppression via their men folk. These cultural constructs maintain the subjugation of the black

underclass that ensures white economic power and black poverty (Kirton, 2010;46) as discussed below.

2.3.3 Poverty

Poverty perhaps is the defining characteristic of the farm labourer's status in society and thus is discussed in this section.

While definitions of poverty vary, poverty can be defined simply as a deficit; as a lack of the socio-economic requirements to live a decent life. Poverty is also relative in many ways. "It is relative to where we are in history; it is relative to what kind of society we want to be; it is relative to what we consider a decent and dignified life to be" (The Goedgedacht Forum for social reflection, 2008:5). Poverty can also be understood as more than a lack; it is also a denial or exclusion from resources and services. Wilson and Ramphele (1989) link it to an illness – something which exists but presents in many different ways (Gray, 1998:137-147). In Sen's view (Vink & Tregurtha, 2003:125), poverty is not simply a question of having too little money; rather, it is about living a life devoid of economic, social and political choice. According to Gray (1998:142) poverty is the single greatest burden of South African people and has been a major concern in South Africa for many years. Poverty has also been described as "The single most powerful circumstance inhibiting human, social and economic development" (Gray, 1998:136). Lack of finances and the harsh living conditions that ensue create feedback where development is hindered by the subjugated class from helping themselves.

Poverty levels differ in different areas, but rates are highest in rural areas (70%) compared to urban areas (28.5%) (Motshedi, 2010). The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) estimated that 50% of the population of South Africa was rural. The 1995 October Household Survey and the 1996 Census, calculated that roughly 48% of people in rural Western Cape were living below the 'poverty-line' (Jacobs & Makaudze, 2009:5). Ashley and Maxwell (2001:395) state that "poverty is not only wide spread in rural areas, but most poverty is rural. Yet this core problem appears neglected as there is a decline in resources and service delivery in rural communities".

While government policy ameliorates extreme poverty, inequality has worsened. According to The Goedgedacht Forum for Social Reflection (2008:5), there has been a major reduction in poverty since 1994. The gap between rich and poor has increased, but there has been an

overall improvement for the poorest 20% of the population, mainly due to social grants. There is also a strong racial dimension to poverty – 7% of South Africans are poor, but only 1% of whites are poor, compared to the 57% of Africans. Whites comprise 9% of the population but earn 45% of the household income. Africans comprise 79% of the population but earn only 41% of household income. Almost 20 million people live in households that spend less than R800 per month (Goedgedacht Forum for Social Reflection, 2008:5).

The gap between rich and poor is not only measured by the disparities in income and wealth, but also in the social ills and social problems created by poverty (Gray, 1998:139). This is clearly demonstrated on farms where the quality of the life of the farm workers differs so radically from that of the farm owner. The vicious cycle of poverty makes it difficult to distinguish the cause from the symptom. “Poverty is characterized by a host of factors, including under nutrition, unemployment, illiteracy, and unequal and poor access to health, housing, education and decision making resources” (Gray, 1998:140). These are all aspects that the impoverished majority of farm labourers face. Chronic poverty is shaped by the nature of the social relations that exist between those who own the land – a small, wealthy, coherent white local landed elite – and those who work it to merely stay alive (Du Toit, 2004:9).

The foregoing illustrates the gap between rich and poor as a reality and a challenge South Africa will have to face, with farm labourers being a priority target group. This comes with a further complication and a social ill that is perhaps not as visible an issue to economists and other professionals working in the field of poverty eradication. However, the feeling of being entitled to a better quality of life away from poverty and hardship is felt by many farm workers. While this may be a justified feeling, it remains a hindrance if the victims of apartheid do not engage to counter these economic, psychological, and social impediments. The challenges created by such a feeling of entitlement amongst farm workers are discussed in the following section.

With society inching towards social integration as implicit in democracy, society’s aim progressively has been to afford the individual the opportunity to develop capacity (Towle, 1973:15). This has been reflected in the provision of education and targets to reduce physical constraints on growth and development, e.g. for housing, toilets and water provision. However, many who have been negatively affected by the racial and cultural injustices of the

past feel that they should be provided for by the state; those who they feel are responsible for their current status are meant to pay.

The Apartheid state exacerbated racial division in the Western Cape by aligning coloureds to white supremacy; fear mongering, through the focus on the “Swart Gevaar” or black domination, was a tactic used by the apartheid state to convince both the coloured and the white population of immanent subjugation, was the subtext for coloured support of various false political power-sharing schemes devised during the apartheid era.

Entitlement is perhaps seen as less of a ‘social ill’ as a spill-over effect of apartheid. There is limited research into entitlement with respect to farm workers; Neville Alexander (2006:5) refers to the abuse of training programmes by previously disenfranchised students provided for under the Employment Equity Act No.55 of 1998; an entitlement attitude permeates government and its spokespersons who are entrenching Apartheid racial categorisation and promoting black middle class access in place of the Apartheid favouring of whites (Alexander, 2006:5). Another use of entitlement typifies perpetrators of sexual violence against women; women deserve and ask to be raped (Nathan, 2010). In many farming communities, however, an attitude of entitlement creates passivity in the face of possible uptake; entitlement is akin to victimisation in that the actor does not become an active participant. This is a huge hindrance in terms of moving forward and becoming self-reliant.

For the purpose of this study, entitlement refers to the feeling with which many farm labourers have been left after suffering under apartheid. It is the feeling that they are now owed a good life and should be well taken care of by the farmer. The experience of suffering such a terrible existence has left many with the feeling of being a victim with limited capacity to take the current situation into their own hands and better their own lives.

In order to try and understand entitlement in this instance, it is crucial to examine the socio-economic status of farm labourers and the harsh conditions to which these farm labourers are exposed. In the following chapter, the socio-economic status will be discussed with specific reference to working conditions, housing, education, health, domestic violence and quality of life and the dire consequences of these circumstances for farm labourers.

2.4 CONCLUSION

The colonisation of the Cape over 350 years ago absorbed and distorted many cultures toward creating a unique socio-economic formation. The importation of slaves from the Far East and Africa brought significantly different cultures under subjugation; these peoples, along with the defeated Khoikhoi, formed the basis of the Western Cape farm labourer population. Both local and international forces shaped the struggles on the land and led to the overthrow of Apartheid. While the progress toward a more democratic form of government can be applauded, the economic realities of South Africa's wine industry being inserted into the world economy has introduced a range of challenges that are broad and complex.

In this chapter, the particular form of colonial domination has been highlighted; the effects on both slave and slave owners, the dispossession of the Khoikhoi from their land and cattle created a peasantry that accommodated the requirements of capital formation of the white ruling class. That economic development that occurred was almost always to the detriment of farm labourers, exacerbating ills that pre- and post-date the colonial era. The racialisation of economic domination has also been examined and was shown to entrench racial inequalities into the Apartheid genre of social control. The state's legislative assault on farm workers was combined with the forms of social control used by the slave-owning class – the dop system, patriarchy, paternalism – leading to today's insidious form of rural poverty. The next chapter examines the post-Apartheid response to the continued impoverishment of farm labourers.

CHAPTER 3

THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CIRCUMSTANCES OF FARM WORKERS ON WINE FARMS IN THE WESTERN CAPE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The evolution of the conditions on wine farms was outlined in the preceding chapter. The recent past has seen many new developments that impact on the household of farm workers. The aim of this chapter is to explain the current socio-economic circumstances of farm labourers in the Western Cape. The chapter is commenced with a brief description of the background regarding the socio-economic status of farm labourers, particularly regarding education, working conditions on wine farms in the Western Cape, housing, health, domestic violence, quality of life and legislation. The chapter then continues to explain the consequences of these conditions. A brief summary of legislation pertaining to farm workers is presented, followed by conclusions drawn from the information presented in the chapter.

3.2 SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF FARM LABOURERS

Historically, the South African wine industries have focused on low quality, cheap wine with an emphasis on quantity rather than quality. With the formation of the Kooperatiewe Wynvereniging (KWV) in 1919, wine production was slowly brought under control to bring about stabilised prices in the wine industry. In 1992, the quota system introduced by the KWV was abolished, thereby also bringing to an end the centralised control of the industry. There was an increase in competition even before the political transition, but the advent of democracy in 1994 accelerated and broadened these trends. The dissolution of Apartheid had positive repercussions for the wine industry, with the UK market alone growing from 1 million cases in 1990 to 11 million in 1996 (www.nlsa.ac.za/vine/cultivating.html).

Labour legislation challenged the system of paternalism and provided farm workers with legal protection similar to such projection for other workers. The wine industry has since grown steadily; since 1990, the area of land under wine grapes has increased at approximately 1% per annum. Between 1995 and 2001, natural wine exports more than doubled and a market shift from bulk wine to quality wine has taken place. These shifts have

meant that wine farmers now operate in a very different environment (A workers' audit of the working and living conditions on selected wine farms in the Western Cape, n.d: 10-11). This new environment has placed enormous pressure on farm owners to improve their social awareness and address the injustices of the historical background of farm labourers in the Western Cape.

For farm workers, the consequences of deregulation have been mixed. A small number of wine farm workers have been able to benefit from these changes on farms that produce quality wines, and where management believes in the need for a motivated and skilled work force. But there has been a negative reaction to the competitive pressures and increased labour legislation requirements that have increased risks and costs regarding workers for most wine farms. Even on the more progressive wine estates more and more work is being done by seasonal and casual workers, often provided by third party labour contractors, thereby creating a deeper divide between 'insiders' and 'outsiders' (A workers' audit of the working and living conditions on selected wine farms in the Western Cape, n.d:10-13).

Legally all agricultural workers are entitled to the same rights under the Basic Conditions of Employment Act No. 75 of 1997 and the Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995 (Falletisch, 2008:59). However, the implementation and monitoring of labour legislation in this industry is very poor. Levine (1999:146) refers to unsafe working conditions in an article exploring child labour in the post-apartheid state; reference is made to farm labourers who are crowded onto the back of an open lorry and transported to wherever they are required to work for the day. Long hours of labour are expected and labourers are required to see to their own nutritional and liquid needs. Very often no protective clothing is provided, resulting in sunburn and exposure to dangerous pesticide poisoning. According to Falletisch (2008:59) labourers remain vulnerable, marginalised and subject to the very oppression and discrimination that government, NGOs and lobbyists have tried to reverse.

According to Viljoen (2008:14) there has been a decrease in permanent workers and an increase in seasonal workers over the past decade due to increased cost of farming, the new agricultural legislation and the Extension of Security of Tenure Act No. 62 of 1997, which provides security for farm labourers who have been living on farms. Having permanent staff has come with too much red tape for the liking of many farm owners. According to Kritzinger (2005:107), the farm labourer's family traditionally was the unit of work force and

not the employed individual. Women were given work on the grounds of their partner's employment when extra help was needed. Viljoen (2008:14) states that the majority of permanent farm labours are coloured men while seasonal workers are mainly women and black men.

Levine (1999:142) makes a comparison between black and coloured farm labourers in her research, stating that farm owners prefer hiring Afrikaans-speaking coloured workers as they are less demanding, although they are more likely to hire semi-skilled black workers at a higher salary when needed. Levine (1999:143) explains that farmers do not employ local blacks, however, as they have a history of demanding higher pay. Africans have historically refused to accept alcohol (the dop system) as remuneration for labour; they do not succumb to alcohol abuse at the same rate as coloured farm workers, and thus are favoured as semi-skilled workers inside the wineries, while coloured labour is used outside in the vineyards. This is but one example of how exploitation of farm workers in the Western Cape persists.

The Ethical Trade Initiative (ETI) is an alliance of companies, non-governmental organisations and trade unions committed to working together to identify and promote good practice in the implementation of codes of practice. The results of the pilot of the ETI code in the wine industry in 1998 showed that employer attitudes varied from compliance and co-operation to reluctance. While debates take place at stakeholder level, some change takes place on the ground, hopefully resulting in better labour conditions for both permanent and casual workers (Falletisch, 2008:60).

In the view of the South African Wine Industry Council, as stated in the Wine Industry Transformation Charter of 2007 (2007:1),

...it should be practice of the industry as a whole, including small enterprises that are formally exempt, to take deliberate steps to deracialise their businesses and contribute to land reform, to ensure those who labour to create wealth are treated with dignity, and to expand opportunity to all.

However, it is evident in practice that, while changes may be taking place, the working conditions for the vast majority of farm labourers in the Western Cape entail lack of job security and housing. Housing is generally of a poor standard, wages are low and access to basic health and education services are difficult (Prenzlee & Smythe, 2003:3).

Farm workers' living and working conditions make them one of the most vulnerable and marginalised groups of workers in South Africa. According to 'A workers' audit of the working and living conditions on selected wine farms in the Western Cape'(n.d:23); farm labourers have been the subject of the worst working conditions in South Africa for a very long time and this will take years to rectify.

3.2.2 Housing

Most farm labourers who are employed on a full-time basis live on the farms on which they work. This is of financial benefit to farm labourers, given the shortage and cost of lower income housing in rural areas in the Western Cape. Falletisch (2008:61), however, points out that housing on farms is an emotive issue which simultaneously creates a sense of security and threat. As employees in most cases are not expected to pay rent, their employers have absolute control over their labour and 'free' housing has been linked to the flexible extraction of women and children's unremunerated labour (Levine, 1999:142).

In the majority of cases the men are the heads of the households and their right to remain in their home is subject to the dictates of the farmer. According to Viljoen (2008:28), a third of farm labourers in the Western Cape live in houses with one bedroom, two-thirds have access to running water, pensioners often have to share a room with the children and overcrowding is common. For most, these living conditions are very basic or substandard with no electricity or running water inside their homes. Falletisch (2008:90) has found that three quarters of farm labourer households had electricity, while less than half had flush toilets; only 11% had access to telecommunication and almost one in every five houses was considered to be overcrowded.

Evictions are also a harsh reality that many farm workers may have to face in spite of having nowhere to go when they are turned off the farm with a partner and children. Du Toit (2004:12) states that there has been marked reluctance among farmers to continue to provide on-farm housing for workers in the Western Cape, due to the entrenchment of workers' rights by the Extension of Tenure Act No. 62 of 1997. "On-farm housing once seen as an important investment by Western Cape Farmers is increasingly being seen as a liability" (Du Toit, 2004:12).

The Extension of Security of Tenure Act (ESTA) of 1997, on the basis of section 25(6) of the Constitution (1990), states:

A person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to tenure which is legally secure or to comparable redress.

Evictions are legal, provided that such termination of residency is 'just and equitable', although stronger tenure rights are given to occupiers who are 60 years old and older, who have lived on the farm for longer than ten years, and who can no longer supply labour to the owner due to ill health or injury. ESTA also draws an important distinction between occupiers who took residency before 4 February 1997 (when the Act came into force) and those who took residency after that date. For those who took residency after February 1997, the rights to residency are less stringent, however various factors such as terms of the agreement, reason for proposed eviction, and period of occupancy are all taken into consideration (Atkinson, 2007:79-81). Despite this law, there are still many illegal evictions still take place, leaving farm labourers and their families homeless.

Atkinson (2007) states that the strong focus on the problems of farm workers in the Western Cape can be explained partially by the fact that it does not have an ex-homeland area to contend with. It is also a function of the nature of the type of agriculture: fruit production is far more labour intensive than most other types of agricultural production and therefore needs to have a much higher permanent labour force residing on the farm. It is the *sine qua non* of Western Cape agriculture: the racial character combined with the climate and export orientation of fruit/wine production has required cheap labour for survival. Another reason for conditions to be under scrutiny is that the fruit and wine industry is a major exporter and therefore sensitive to international pressure on markets.

Viljoen (2008:29) reports farm labourers have indicated that there has been an improvement in the quality of housing provided on farms over the last few years. They do not see this as due to the change in legislation, however, but rather as due to the pressure placed on farm owners by export companies that emphasise socially responsive action for the international market. The uncertainty around the permanency of housing can create huge stress on farm labourers, leaving them as dependent on the farm owner as ever.

3.2.3 Education

Education or the lack thereof is the basis that determines the farm labourer's occupation or limits farm labourers to farm work, as opposed to having a choice of occupation. Viljoen (2008:31) points out that farm labourers are considered to have the lowest level of education in South Africa and are regarded as an 'unschooled' occupation group.

3.2.3.1 School education

A key factor militating against farm labourers' advancement in the work place is the poor level of school education throughout the twentieth century. The 1996 Census showed that about 41% of male farm workers had received no education at all and another 34% had had only little primary school education. Coloured farm workers were slightly better educated, but a quarter of the male workers had no education, and women farm workers had even less schooling (Atkinson, 2007:229).

Farmers had established and financed farm schools, but these schools were established according to government regulations. Despite the Education and Training Act 90 of 1979, which aimed to introduce compulsory education in all areas, facilities in rural areas remained inadequate. Other problems such as dispersed settlements, poor transport systems, absence of qualified staff, low economic status, widespread malnutrition and lack of parental involvement all played a role. Consequently, the level of education among farm labourers and their families are still comparatively low (Atkinson, 2007:229).

In 1985, 36% of rural children of school-going age (6 to 14 years) were not attending school. Learners had to travel far to get to school and the drop-out rate was a high. For girls, the education rate was significantly lower than for boys. Many farm schools provided tuition only up to standard two (usually age 10), so many learners left school before they were functionally literate (Atkinson, 2007:229-230).

According to Atkinson (2007:230-231), the provision of schools for farm workers' children was hampered by four main constraints: the farm school system depended on the farmers' willingness to construct schools; many farmers had mixed feelings about the training of farm workers because, while a skilled labour force would improve productivity, it would also raise farm workers' expectations about wages and living conditions; thirdly, the isolation of farm schools meant that there was little chance of attracting professional staff to a farm setting;

and a further problem was securing the commitment and participation of the learners' parents and families. In other words, schooling for farm labourers' children was attached to a range of factors that would cause the children who did attend school to ultimately give up or not get very far despite their efforts.

“The story of farm education since 1950 is one of missed opportunities, ambivalence and an unresolved relationship between farmers and the state” (Atkinson, 2007:231). After 1998, the government attempted to improve farm education. The Education Laws Amendment Act No. 31 of 1988, which was passed but never implemented, provided for the end of the use of child labour during school hours. The Act illustrated the underlying confusion and contradictions of government policy. The tensions between farmer interests, government control, rural investment, the need for farm worker training and fear of contamination by liberationist ideologies continued to undermine government interventions. The heart of the problem was the relationship between the state and the farm worker and the mediating role of the farm owner. This relationship changed over time. In the Cape Province it had very particular racial characteristics – Africans were discriminated against pre-1976 under Bantu education and through their expulsion from the Cape; Coloureds were always favoured, but only as far as it served the interests of the white-dominated economy, which ultimately gave the farmer the final say (Atkinson, 2007:232).

After 1988, the number of farm schools declined steadily every year, despite more generous subsidies from government. After 1994, urban schools were promoted, and farm schools were left stagnant (Atkinson, 2007:233). After 2000, the Department of Education decided to sign leases with farmers. The passing of the South African Schools Act (SASA) 84 of 1996 was supposed to be the death knell for this dual management system: farm schools, together with public schools on private land, were to be proclaimed public schools. This new system of schooling never really took off, though, thus constraining attempts of district offices, farmers and parents to improve schools and facilities (Atkinson, 2007:234).

The current situation is beset with difficulties regarding the future of farm schools. According to Atkinson (2007:235), it remains unclear whether public schools on private land should be continued and promoted, or whether farm schools should be closed in favour of urban-based boarding schools. At present, there are approximately 363 farm schools in the Western Cape (Centre for Applied Legal Studies CALS, 2005:31). Many children of farm workers do not

have access to educational facilities, however, and thus have to travel to public schools or neighbouring farms (Viljoen (2008:31). For many, transport, school uniforms, school lunches and other school activities place extreme economic strain on families. Farm schools in most instances only provide junior school education (CALS, 2005:7). Viljoen (2008:31), cites the CALS human rights report (2005:10) that in 2004 found that farm schools are not always accessible to children and that the standard of education is in many instances is unsatisfactory. The report (CALS, 2005:10) stated that the funding received from government was inadequate to see to the needs of each and every child. Many farm children in the area were required to travel to government schools which, due to lack of funding, had overcrowded classes with little or no support to the teachers and learners with special needs. The education system was such that it required learners to be pushed up through the ranks without achieving the required standards until they reached high school. Children fail repeatedly without learning the basics and many leave school at the legal age of 16 without matriculating. A vicious circle is created; very low levels of education lead to a destiny of low-paying, non-permanent and unskilled farm work, thereby trapping farm labourers on the land.

3.2.3.2 Preschool facilities on farms

According to Viljoen's research (2008:32), 46.5% of farms in the Western Cape had crèche facilities in 1999. Where there was no organised crèche facility, a family member or pensioner was usually paid a small amount to look after the children. Karaan and Tregurtha (1996:50) highlight the importance of crèches on farms for providing nutrition, intellectual stimulation and adaptation to discipline. However, in many cases these facilities are only available to permanent farm labourers (Viljoen, 2008:32).

3.2.3.3 Education and development of farm labourers

Falletisch (2008:125-125) provides an extensive list of organisations in the Western Cape that are dedicated to assisting farm labourers to further their personal education and development. This list includes the following:

- Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET);
- The AGRI Seta establishes learning hubs for farm labourers;
- The Agricultural Workers Association (AGRIWASA) provides collective action and bargaining on behalf of farm labourers;

- The Cape Woman's Forum provides family and home management plans, Business skills programmes, health and safety programmes and team leadership programmes;
- The Centre for Rural Legal Studies (CRLS) provides research, training and legal advice for farm labourers;
- DOPSTOP offers youth and community development on farms as well as individual counselling, lobbying and research on habitual drinking;
- Woman on Farms assists women who are subjected to domestic violence;
- The Anna Foundation focuses on after-school clubs of which the main focus is holistic development of the child; the foundation also focuses on training farm residents as assistant teachers to run these clubs;
- The Pebbles project gives educational support to children in disadvantaged communities with the emphasis on children aged between two and twelve; they also provide training for parents and crèche workers.

However, to utilise some of these organisations, farmers are very often required to make some kind of financial contribution as well as provide time during working hours for these programmes to take place. The farmer also needs a facility where these programmes and workshops can take place. According to Viljoen (2008:32), educational programmes made accessible to farm labourers include workshops on work-related technical production and the social aspect of production. In 1999, 65% of farms in the Western Cape had some kind of training available to their farm labourers. Viljoen (2008:33) states that more organisations have sprung up and farm owners in recent years have seen the need for skills development and the empowerment of farm labourers.

London, Nell, Thompson and Myers (1998) express concern that, given the low education levels among farm workers, the lack of resources and particularly the closed nature of farming communities, farm workers remain trapped in a cycle of poverty and dependency that will have profoundly adverse effects on their health and that of their families. This lack of health and the accompanying challenges faced by farm labourers are discussed in the next section.

3.2.4 Health

South African health services face enormous challenges in the attempt to address the backlog in health services and inequalities inherited from the previous government. One of the many

elements of this challenge concerns how to reach out to the 1.16 million farm workers who, under apartheid policies, occupied a particularly marginalised position in an already unequal society (London, 1999:1407).

The Lancet (2009:818) states that South Africa is prone to four concurrent epidemics – a health profile found only in the Southern African Development Community regions –, all involving poverty-related illnesses such as infectious diseases, maternal death, malnutrition and non communicable diseases. HIV/AIDS accounts for 31% of the total disability-adjusted life years of the South African population, with violence and injuries constituting a further cause of premature deaths and disabilities.

Thus, when addressing health issues related to farm labourers, the following will be highlighted: Access to medical services, occupational risk coupled with poor living conditions, and alcoholism.

3.2.4.1 Access to medical assistance

There is little or no medical assistance other than the mobile clinic which pays monthly visits at the majority of farms in the Western Cape. The mobile clinics are effective in the distribution of contraceptives, distribution of medication for chronic illnesses and immunisations. However, farm workers in the Western Cape, according to Viljoen (2008:30), are exposed to many health risks due to their lifestyle and standard of living and there is a lack of adequate health services. Private medical doctors are situated in the surrounding towns, but the estimated distance to the nearest doctor is 10 km on average (Viljoen, 2008:30). This requires farm labourers in need of medical care to take time off work and pay for public transport to get to the doctor or rely on the farmer for transport. Although many farmers do try and assist with transport, it is usually not possible to provide transport on demand, due to cost considerations, the unpredictable nature of farming activities and the fact that farmers are sometimes away from their farms (Atkinson, 2007:103). Doctor's bills are high and there most often is no kind of medical aid provided by the employer. Clinics are state-subsidised and usually are a taxi ride or a very long walk away from most farms. While this is a free service, one has to arrive very early if one wants to be seen by a nursing sister. At a given time, the line is cut and everyone is sent home to queue again the next day, which means that more money will be needed for transport and assistance would still not be guaranteed. One could literally be put on a waiting list for months to see a doctor or a

specialist – in some cases for years. People with serious health problems worsen or, in severe cases, die, without having seen a medical doctor. Many patients complain that they are sent home with inadequate pain relief and the pain and discomfort they experience outweighs the cure.

Government hospitals are grossly understaffed and oversubscribed; in some instances the equipment is inadequate or absent. Neglect is common with the result that people are discharged before they are ready and their condition worsens when they return to their substandard housing. For at risk categories, lack of access to primary health clinics remains a hurdle to improving health. The Lancet (2009:818) reports that, although South Africa is considered a middle income country in terms of its economy, its health outcomes are worse than those in many lower income countries.

Falletisch (2008:89) states that a lifestyle associated with endemic alcoholism, trauma and exposure to pesticides, as well as harsh living and working conditions, makes it difficult to bring about change and escape dependency. With low levels of education, low income and a lack of resources, lifestyle changes are required yet very difficult to achieve.

London, Nell, Thompson and Myers (1998) conclude their research (on The health status among farm workers in the Western Cape) by saying that research into the health status and health needs of farm workers has been neglected in the past, which has reinforced their marginalisation in the organisation of social services. It is clear from the above that the South African health service faces complex challenges to improve health services in rural areas.

3.2.4.2 Occupation risk coupled with poor living conditions

London, Nell, Thompson and Myers (1999) reveal that agricultural work has been recognised as one of the occupations most hazardous to human health. Occupational risk factors include increased morbidity and mortality from accidents, climate exposure, respiratory disease caused by dust and organic matter, chemical toxicity and ergonomic hazards. Levine (1999:140) lists health issues on farms as high rates of alcoholism, malnourishment, pesticide poisoning, unsafe water sanitation and hygiene and consequent neurological damage, sun exposure, dental disease, bodily injuries caused through poor health and implementation of safety regulations, as well as abuse at the hands of farmers or other workers (Levine, 1999:140). According to Falletisch (2008:88), the incidence of tuberculosis is three times

higher than in cities. Chronic disorders such as heart disease, cirrhosis of the liver and malignancy are increasing problems. It has been noted that almost a quarter of farm labourers suffer from hypertension (Falletisch, 2008:88).

London, Nell, Thompson and Myers (1998) explain that farm work has been characterised by extremely poor living conditions, including low wages, inadequate housing, poor sanitation, inadequate water supplies and paternalistic and coercive labour relations, all having a direct impact on the health of the labourers and their families. These conditions in combination with the alcohol abuse that characterise the lifestyle of the stereotypical farm labourer are detrimental to health.

3.2.4.3 Alcohol abuse

The historical practice of paying workers in part with alcohol known as the DOP system discussed in Chapter 2 is unique to the Western Cape's agricultural economy. According to London (2000:200), its informal and sometimes formal use still appears to be ongoing despite its official illegality, although accurate data on the current extent of this practice is difficult to obtain. London's (2000:203) study provide evidence that show farm workers in the Western Cape to be ranked higher as users of alcohol compared to other occupational categories. According to London (1999:1409), alcohol consumption amongst farm workers in the Western Cape is approximately twice that of their urban counterparts.

In the social context where a high rate of alcohol consumption has been institutionalised, the threats posed to the health of farm workers and their families are not only the direct effects of alcohol, but also indirect, through interaction with social and environmental variables (London, 1999:1410). Various hazards are associated with high levels of alcohol consumption. According to London (1999:1410) the inebriating effects of alcohol abuse may lead in the short term to disinhibition, carelessness and accident-prone behaviours, while long-term abuse may result in poor learning skills, unhealthy lifestyles and general susceptibility to hazards at work. Chronic alcohol consumption, particularly from an early age, may impair the ability to learn skills needed for training in pesticide safety. Alcoholic intoxication may furthermore mask or overshadow the clinical effects of pesticides and lead to a delay in diagnosis and poor clinical outcomes (London, 1999:1410).

Thus there is much evidence in the farming areas of the Western Cape to support the hypothesis that a high level of alcohol abuse and excessive consumption are associated with multiple adverse health and social outcomes (London, 2000:204). These include TB, spousal abuse, child abuse, malnutrition, low birth weight, alcohol-related interpersonal violence and foetal alcohol syndrome (FAS), which has been reported as the most common condition seen a clinics in the province. Alcohol-related morbidity and mortality therefore represent a large burden of disease for South Africa's health services (London, 2000:204).

There are also many health problems related to children on farms; low birth weight, infant mortality, and stunted growth rate are two to three times more prevalent in rural areas than in urban areas (Falletisch, 2008:88). Falletisch (2008:88) also states that chronic undernourishment coupled with intrauterine insult through alcohol and tobacco products will curtail the potential lifetime achievable by young adults on farms.

The foetal alcohol syndrome (FAS) resulting from mothers using alcohol during pregnancy is widespread among children on farms and causes a series of health-related problems for children. The syndrome is defined as "a permanent condition causing many behavioural and health problems, learning difficulties, hyperactivity, and growth stunting, liver damage and family disruption in children and later in life" (Falletisch, 2008:69). Falletisch has reported that the highest rates of FAS in the world, somewhere between 5% and 11%, have been recorded amongst children on farms in the Western Cape.

London (1999:1409) found evidence indicating that the extremely limited mobility of the rural labour force in commercial farming in the Western Cape is a phenomenon in which the "dop" system has played a key role. Surveillance systems for traumatic injury in the Western Cape report that almost half of traumatic injuries seen at rural hospitals are related to alcohol and that these rates are about 30% higher than the proportion for urban residents (London, 1999:1410). In this regard, domestic violence as a leading result of alcohol abuse is the focus of the next section.

3.2.5 Domestic violence

Despite the high rate of domestic violence in the farming context little information about it is available with regard to these communities (Parenzee & Smythe, 2003:1; Viljoen, 2008:21). The problem of alcohol abuse is especially acute in the Western Cape, significantly on wine

farms. Falletisch (2008:74) reports a correlation between habitual drinking and social violence on farms. For adults and children alike, drinking and violence are part of everyday life. In most patriarchal rural communities and on farms there is a cycle of violence that is sometimes very hard to understand and even harder to break. Gibson (2004 in Falletisch) states that violent behaviour is a social pathology resulting from a colonial and apartheid history, social and racial inequality, the militarisation of men, the legacy of poverty and marginalisation (Falletisch, 2008:75).

According to the Lancet (2009), although gang culture was and is an extreme form of urban youth subculture and its objectification of sexuality, the underlying values have continuities from early rural practice and an important explanation for the involvement of many black and coloured young men in criminal gangs that is proposed is that it is the result of apartheid which rendered so many traditional aspects of adult manhood unattainable, including family and fulfilment of a provider role.

Given the unequal power relations between men and women, it is not surprising that women living on farms are vulnerable to high levels of domestic violence. According to Viljoen (2008:20-21), violence is a form of punishment, an expression of anger and a way of gaining power and control. To many farm labourers, this is an acceptable form of conflict resolution (Viljoen, 2008:21). Women are seen as the property of their husbands/partners, they are also in many cases dependent on them financially, and in most cases men are seen as the head of the household and are given ownership by the farmer. If a woman decides that she wants to leave her husband/partner, she will be left without anything, including accommodation for herself and, most often, her children as well. Thus women are kept economically dependent and isolated (Falletisch, 2008:75).

The relationship between violence and alcohol abuse as discussed by Parenzee and Smythe (2003:5-5) is difficult to define. The interlinking explanations that are offered are that alcohol acts pharmacologically and moves normal constraints to aggressive behaviour and people learn to behave in certain ways when they are drunk and know that this will be tolerated and excused. If violent behaviour while under the influence of alcohol is 'excused', such conduct becomes "normalised within communities" (Parenzee & Smythe, 2003:4-5). Parenzee and Smythe refer to further research that indicates that "alcohol use increases the risk of being both a perpetrator and a victim of crime, particularly in the case of binge drinking. The risk is

exacerbated by cramped living conditions and a myriad of other stressors prevalent in farm life” (Parenzee & Smythe, 2003:5).

The Domestic Violence Act (Nr. 116 of 1998) and the criminal justice system in South Africa are simply not geared to dealing with poor people: knowledge of legal rights is inevitably the privilege of literate people with effective access to the required systems such as transport, telecommunication, funds to pay for social welfare issues such as child minders while a mother is trying to deal with a crime committed against her, lack of accommodation if a woman needs to leave her home due to violence, lack of affordable and sustainable medical treatment, and funds to gain legal representation when needed (Parenzee & Smythe, 2003:5). According to Viljoen (2008:23), the types of abuse that occur on farms in the Western Cape comprise physical abuse, economic, verbal, and emotional abuse, financial abuse and sexual abuse. While physical abuse appears to be the most prevalent it is only viewed as serious if weapons such as knives or firearms are involved (Viljoen, 2008:23).

The Domestic Violence Act Nr. 116 of 1998 does not criminalise or create an offence of domestic violence: rather, it provides a civil remedy for obtaining protection against further abuse, by means of a protection order. The order must be breached before the abuser can be charged with an offence, conviction for which may be a term of imprisonment for up to five years. Parenzee and Smith (2003:5) give a detailed explanation of this process: to gain a protection order one has to apply through the courts, if the judge is satisfied with the contents of the report (which requires a detailed report of the abuse the applicant suffered) an interim protection order is served by the Sheriff of the court or a police official. This includes a return date, upon which the magistrate may hear evidence on the matter from both parties. On the return date the order may be finalised, varied or set aside. Both the interim and final protection orders are accompanied by a suspended warrant of arrest, which becomes operative on breach of the protection order by the respondent. On breach of the protection order the applicant must approach the police, who must, where there are grounds to believe the applicant will suffer imminent harm if they do not do so, arrest the perpetrator. Where such grounds do not exist, the police must hand the respondent a written notice to appear in court (Parenzee & Smythe, 2003:5).

Parenzee and Smythe (2003:5) state that farm workers have little faith in the criminal justice system and see the criminal justice response as inadequate for dealing with an incidence of

violence. Parenzee and Smythe (2003:5) further state that police response time is often inadequate and their attitudes problematic. Reports have shown that, while the emphasis on domestic violence legislation is in place, a number of barriers to effective implementation include the lack of resources, poor level of training and education, the dearth of support systems outside the criminal justice system, the lack of responsibility placed on the health sector to ensure that abuse is identified and documented, as well as prejudice towards certain communities and victims of domestic violence (Parenzee & Smythe, 2003:6).

All these factors contribute to under-reporting of domestic violence; cases are often thrown out before they even go to court, since some women retract their complaint due to the men 'apologizing' or out of fear of what these men will do to them next. The cycle of domestic violence is deeply entrenched in many farm labourers and sadly forms part of their daily lives and the quality of their existence. In the next section an overview of the quality of the lives of farm labourers will be sketched.

3.2.6 Quality of life

The lived experiences of farm labourers need to be understood in terms of dysfunctional household dynamics, gender inequalities, poor education and lack of social and organisational skills or experience, a serious want of confidence and self-esteem, a lack of appropriate language skills to negotiate modern institutions and, too often, also substance abuse (Atkinson 2007:9).

Sen's capability model (2003) offers a critique of the neoclassical/orthodox economic measurement of an empirical poverty line approach (Vink & Tregurtha, 2003:125). Sen (2003) argues that when assessing a person's quality of life, the focus has to be on the intrinsic value of goods as a means to an end and cannot be substituted for development in and of themselves and on the fact that well-being cannot be reduced to material wealth since people's requirements vary. On a social level, it must also take into account that commodity requirements vary with culture (Vink & Tregurtha: 127). Sen (2003) therefore argues that quality of life can only be understood as the capabilities that make up life, e.g. being adequately nourished, leading a long and healthy life, being literate, and avoiding homelessness. Sen describes poverty as the failure of these basic capabilities (Vink & Tregurtha, 2003:127). When assessing the quality of life of farm labourers it is therefore necessary to measure their achieved basic capabilities given the very real costs of isolation to

meeting their social and economic needs (Vink & Tregurtha:131). The need for programmes to promote people's capabilities is discussed in Chapter 4.

The Western Cape Provincial Growth and Development Strategies (PGDS) deal with the issues of farm workers and propose various strategies to improve farm workers' quality of life. These include providing counselling to farm workers on labour efficiency and relations; multi-skilling of labourers; training of labourers; broadening access to agricultural opportunities by involving an increased number of historically excluded/marginalised and disadvantaged groups as owners and entrepreneurs (gender equality); promoting access of small-scale farmers to commercial agriculture; empowering communities for a career in agriculture through skills development; facilitating access to credit and agriculture infrastructure; and providing, maintaining and upgrading transport routes in order to facilitate holistic development with all support facilities (Atkinson, 2007:170).

Viljoen (2008:33) highlights the importance of access to recreational activities in farming communities. On farms where workers have access to these activities there is usually a decrease in alcohol consumption and the farm labourers are given an opportunity to focus less on other hardships they experience in their daily lives. Thus recreational activities provide a positive contribution to the lives of farm labourers (Viljoen, 2008:33).

Farm workers in the past have been one of the most socially excluded groups in South African society and this continues to be so. 'A workers' audit of the working and living conditions on selected wine farms in the Western Cape' explains social exclusion as 'a process in terms of which certain people and their environment are excluded from opportunities, status, power and privileges available to others'. People living on farms still have very little access to transport and health services and recreational facilities.

Until 1996, farm workers, being excluded from the Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995 and most other labour legislation had no right to compulsory leave, unemployment benefits, sick leave or overtime pay. Even though they now are afforded these rights under the Constitution (1996) and Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995, trade unions attempting to organise farm workers still find their efforts being blocked by resistance from farm owners and managers. Despite empowerment initiatives such as the Black Association of Wine and Spirit Industry (BAWSI) and the Wine Industry Ethical Trading Association (WIETA), farm workers are

still largely excluded from participation in the decision-making bodies of the industry. Thus farm workers, for the most part remain voiceless and disempowered, living an isolated life of social exclusion ('A workers' audit of the working and living conditions on selected wine farms in the Western Cape: 24-25).

Given the past and present situation of farm labourers the majority remain trapped in the cycle of poverty and dependency with a poor quality of life resulting from their socio-economic status. For the purpose of this study, it is important to have a broad understanding of other legislation pertaining to farm workers which ultimately affects all aspects of their lives. Such legislation is briefly discussed in the following section.

3.3 FURTHER LEGISLATION PERTAINING TO FARM LABOURERS

The post-apartheid government has faced major challenges in setting up legislative frameworks that both advance freedom and equality and protect the country's natural resource base (Crane, 2006:1036). Legislation introduced to protect agricultural workers since 1993, comprise the following: The Restitution of Land Rights Act (1992), The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights (1996) and the Extension of Security of Tenure Act Nr. 62 (1997), the Basic Conditions of Employment Act No. 75 (1997), the Employment Equity Act No. 55 (1998), the Agricultural Labour Act No. 147 (1993), and the Unemployment Insurance Act (1993) (Falletisch, 2008:118).

As of March 2007, 70% of all settled land restitution claims (both urban and rural) were achieved by financial compensation rather than resettlement (Leyshon, 2009:765). In the Western Cape, most claims centred on urban land, since the Coloured population had been dispossessed centuries before and restitution claims cannot be logged for cases where land was taken before 1910. The 1994 elections elicited utopian expectations from the new electorate who equated political freedom with economic empowerment. "Such empowerment would include access to land, a space for homesteads and the opportunity to start a livelihood in farming" (Leyshon, 2009:756).

The major legislative protection for farm workers that operates in the Western Cape is the Extension of Security of Tenure Act No. 62, 1997, and this is limited to very specific cases of

occupation of farmland. Many individuals and communities based on Cape farms were illegally evicted in contravention of this and other basic employment legislation, i.e. the Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995 and the Basic Conditions of Employment Act No. 75 of 1997.

The Employment Equity of Act No. 55 of 1998 sets out stringent reporting requirements for employers of businesses with more than 50 employees or exceeding a turnover of R5 million (The Wine Industry Transformation Charter, 2007:4). This has provided greater opportunities for previously disenfranchised South Africans, women, and those with disabilities; and has created greater equality and training opportunities for the designated groups.

However, it is clear from the above that farm workers, despite legislative changes, remain a dispersed 'group' that, as a class, is almost invisible to society and generally is the last social constituency that government agencies meet (Atkinson, 2007:3-4).

3.4 CONCLUSION

According to Atkinson (2007:40), the post-apartheid government's attempts to improve the situation of farms workers ironically and tragically has been based on a lack of understanding of the longer-term and underlying forces that shape and pressure farm workers and their families. This chapter provides a description of the current socio-economic status of farm labourers in the Western Cape and the consequences of these poor conditions. It is clear that, despite the political changes in South African since 1990, democratisation of labour relations in agriculture has lagged far behind changes in other sectors, reflecting the historically entrenched paternalism inherent in employer-employee relationships in South African farming (London, 1999:1408).

From this chapter it can be concluded that there is an urgent need for participatory, bottom-up planning that involves farm labourers and their families. Through a better understanding of the historical background and socio-economic circumstances of farm labourers by those working in the field of development, results are more likely to be favourable. Resources to achieve meaningful development, as Sen (2003) (and others) define poverty elevation, are coming to hand.

Atkinson (2007:7) portrays the status of farm workers on one hand as in a tragic state of neglect, yet, on the other hand, providing enormous potential for a much needed economic boost in rural areas of South Africa. The positive attitudes of many farmers towards their staff and the broader rural community provide a source of important and under-utilised social capital. Drawing on these strands of positivity is the subject of the following chapter, in which it is endeavoured to describe the nature of capacity-building initiatives that can address the socio-economic status of farm labourers from a social development perspective.

CHAPTER 4

CAPACITY BUILDING FOR FARM WORKERS FROM A SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PERSPECTIVE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Under Apartheid the wine industry was exclusively white-owned and infamous for the appalling treatment endured by its black workforce, described as the “worst working conditions experienced in South Africa” (McEwan & Bek, 2005:1026). According to Atkinson (2007:15) the rural social order historically was largely, but not exclusively exploitative. The social order contained important elements of paternalism, limited mutual social loyalties and an ‘economy of affection’. But as the agricultural labour system became entrenched during the first six decades of the twentieth century, farm workers had illegal and semi-legal opportunities to escape from the strictures of farm life and to make their own way to cities. The result was that an unskilled and unsophisticated farm labour force was left behind. Those constituting this force were deprived of modern education and experience, and poorly equipped for the globalised modern economy.

In the view of the South African Wine Industry Council (2007:1), although there has been progress regarding the social conditions on some farms, these conditions remain unacceptably poor for the majority of farm workers, despite the legislative changes brought about through the South African Constitution (Act No 108 of 1996), The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) and the Integrated Service Delivery Model (1998), which are discussed in the next section.

The objective of this chapter is to describe how empowerment and capacity building can address the socio-economic circumstances of farm labourers from a social development perspective. According to Nieman (2002:12), the worldwide move to the social development approach for addressing social ills has been accepted and incorporated as official South African government policy, as set out in the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997).

The overview of South African legislation and policy which promotes social development which is presented will be followed by an explanation of key elements of the social development perspective. Interventions for addressing the current socio-economic

circumstances of farm worker communities will be highlighted and the process of community work as a means of addressing the need for capacity building will conclude this chapter.

4.2 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

Although South Africa is considered a middle-income country, income disparities are among the most extreme in the world (The World Bank Group, 2000:1). Green (2008:7) states that the most serious impediment to democracy is the level of inequality between black and white South Africans. In an attempt to address these disparities and inequalities, the government has accepted transformation as a priority responsibility for its policies and programmes (Nieman, 2002:1). The first democratically elected government made a commitment to address these problems and prominence was given to social development in the Government's agenda for transformation. The new political order of 1994 called on all sectors of society to revisit policies and approaches to demonstrate commitment to transformation and change towards a truly democratic society (Lombard, 2008:155). While the removal of apartheid legislation has not eliminated many of the inequalities that exist, new legislation has been implemented to help address the current socio-economic concerns of those previously discriminated against.

Social development is a perspective to social welfare that posits a macro policy framework for poverty alleviation which combines social and economic goals. Developmental social welfare is the name given to South Africa's welfare system moulded by the theory of social development as embodied in the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997). Developmental social work is the type of social work said to be relevant to, and practised within, the new developmental social welfare system (Gray 2006:3).

To contextualise the shift in political will, the most influential social welfare policies of the post-apartheid government, namely, the South African Constitution (Act No 108 of 1996), The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) and the Integrated Service Delivery Model (2006) is discussed.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996) creates a normative framework for a society built on principles of participation, accountability, unity, non-discrimination, equity and partnership. It is one of the few constitutions that enshrine a duty

to alleviate poverty (Green, 2008:5). According to Lombard (2008:155), South Africa is acknowledged nationally and internationally as one of the few countries to have embraced a developmental social welfare approach. The Constitution provides for a Bill of Rights (1996), which brought about a new paradigm for social welfare, because it does not only provide for fundamental rights but also for social and economic rights (Green, 2008:5). According to Green (2008:5), this implies that social priorities and the distribution of resources can now be questioned; government should not only protect rights but to some extent it should also provide for the fulfilment of rights.

The ANC government thus compiled the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997). This resulted in a macro-policy framework for social welfare, principles, guidelines and recommendations for the implementation of a developmental perspective in social welfare and a new direction for the Department of Social Welfare (Green, 2008:5). According to Green (2008:10), the Integrated Service Delivery Model for Developmental Social Services of the Department of Social Development (2006) is an effort to give effect to the implementation of the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997). The rationale for the development of this model was to integrate the three broad programmes of the Department of Social Development: Social Security, Social Welfare and Community Development. Green also points out that, in order to achieve this integration, a developmental approach that focuses on the strengths of client systems and that recognises their capacity for growth and development is needed. The Integrated Service Delivery Model (2006) acknowledges that developmental service is the collective responsibility of various role players, including government, non-government organisations and the private sector.

The exact nature and extent of involvement of these service providers is determined by history, expertise, statutory requirements and costs (Integrated Service Delivery Model, 2006:3). The ultimate goal of the Integrated Service Delivery Model is the implementation of a comprehensive, efficient, effective, quality service delivery system that contributes to a self-reliant society (2006:5). The target groups highlighted in the Integrated Service Delivery Model (2006) are delineated in terms of the life cycle as follows: “Children who are under the age of 18 years and who are abused, neglected, orphaned, abandoned and/or live in other especially difficult circumstances; young people who are between the age of 14 and 28 years and who are at risk, in conflict with the law, out of school and/or unemployed; families that are vulnerable, including single-parent, child-headed, destitute and or/refugee families;

vulnerable women including victims of violence, poor and/or unemployed and older vulnerable people including those who are abused, frail and/or indignant”(2006:17).

Due to the history of South Africa, with specific reference to the Winelands in the Western Cape, farm worker households are included in most, if not all of the target group or ‘at risk’ groups mentioned above and who, despite legislation, are still suffering the consequences of apartheid. Effective implementation of the above-mentioned policies should address the majority of challenges facing this marginalised group if the key elements of social development are correctly understood and embraced by government, non-governmental organisations and the private sector.

In the following section, key elements of social development, namely: empowerment, the strengths perspective and capacity building are discussed. A more rigorous understanding of these concepts should aid effective implementation of the above-mentioned policies and address social development practices at all levels.

4.3 KEY ELEMENTS OF THE SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PERSPECTIVE

Social development pursues an alternative route from the traditional problem-solving approach in focusing on empowerment, autonomy of actors, taking into account the structural obstacles that confront individuals as they shape their daily lives in the sense of learning to develop themselves. This means that development is always conceived within a twin framework of self- and other-development. Social development represents a holistic approach that is non-static and process-orientated (Homfeldt & Reutlinger, 2008).

Midgley (1995:25) defines social development as “...a process of planned social change designed to promote the well-being of the population as a whole in conjunction with a dynamic process of economic development”. It has called for an interdisciplinary focus and conveys a positive and optimistic view of improvement or progress. This definition implies that interventions must take place by means of the implementation of plans and strategies with an end goal in mind. The ‘key elements’ namely; empowerment, capacity building and the strengths perspective, provide clear guidelines for the structured approach in any helping initiative with developmental intentions (Nieman, 2002:15) and is discussed in the following section.

4.3.1 Empowerment

The various aspects of empowerment are explained in this section.

4.3.1.1 The need for empowerment

According to McEwan and Bek (2005:1022), empowerment strategies have nowhere been more central to government policy than in South Africa, both historically and currently. Empowerment is seen as central to post-apartheid nation building and to the broader transformation from a radicalised system of discrimination to one of greater political, social and economic equality.

McEwan and Bek (2005:1026) discuss why ‘empowerment’ in the South African wine industry has gained much attention: In 2003, the wine industry alone contributed R16.3 billion or 1.5% of the total GDP (excluding wine tourism, which contributed a further R4.2 billion) with the majority (R11.4 billion) remaining in Cape Town and the Western Cape. While wine farmers are under considerable competitive pressure from an international market, the industry enjoys new prosperity and it is perhaps for this reason that the empowerment debate has been focused more on this industry than in any other area of agriculture.

According to Gathiram (2005:123-130), empowerment is the key to any intervention in civil society, thus it is also relevant to the situation of farm workers. For empowerment to occur there has to be a change in power relations between individuals, groups and social institutions. One precondition is that farm labourers must no longer perceive themselves as victims, but must take charge of their lives, so that personal change can occur.

According to Nieman (2002:18), empowerment has become part of the vocabulary in social development and can be considered a goal as well as a result of development efforts. Nieman (2002:18) states that the way in which empowerment is described to benefit individuals, groups and communities makes it a powerful mechanism in development practices. Adams (1996:5) defines empowerment as “...the means by which individuals, groups and/or communities become able to take control of their circumstances and achieve their own goals, thereby being able to work towards helping themselves and others to maximize the quality of their lives”. Falletisch (2008:98) correctly highlights what has been stated above: that only once the farm worker no longer sees him/herself as the victim and takes charge of his/her

own life will personal change occur. However, for farm workers, taking charge of their own lives can be a very foreign concept.

McEwan and Bek (2005:1022) explain empowerment as a perceived facilitator for the attainment of rights and as central to the creation of participatory democracy, with emphasis on the role of self-organisation. Efforts towards socio-political transformation have thus been based on how power operates. It is recognised that, for change to occur, there needs to be a shift in ideology to accompany the restructuring of decision-making hierarchies in all spheres of life.

As cited in Falletisch (2008:97-98), Gathiram (2005) explains that there has to be a shift in power relationships between individuals, groups and social institutions for empowerment and poverty alleviation programmes to be successful. As a result of paternalism and power relations, farm workers have not learned to take charge of their own lives and to see themselves as part of the solution. For as long as they have been loyal and have retained the favour of the farmer, he has provided for and taken care of them. What the farmer did not provide, the workers learned to do without. Falletisch (2008:98) points out that the physical isolation of farms, has placed farm workers at a further disadvantage in terms of exposure to other disadvantaged groups who have taken control of their lives. He explains "...it is difficult for people to work towards something they cannot visualize". This has made farm workers as a group one of the most vulnerable and most in need of empowerment.

McEwan and Bek (2005:1032) indicate that empowerment initiatives may not yet be delivering radical outcomes; they are part of a process of setting a tone throughout South African society and perhaps beyond, reinforcing the imperative of transformation and identifying some of the challenges that are situated in the local, national and global power structures.

4.3.1.3 Levels of empowerment

Nieman (2008:23) refers to different levels of empowerment as cited in Kvinnoforum (2001:20). For the purpose of this study, Table 4.1, which has been adjusted from Nieman (2008:23), provides examples of empowerment on different levels and the type of power relations involved.

Table 4.1: Levels of empowerment

Empowerment level	Kind of power	Example of empowerment
Individual level	Power within, power to	Increased: self-esteem, ability to make decisions, control over life situation, rights awareness
Group level	Power with, power to	Increased: ability to organise, collective action to improve farm workers' situation
Societal/community level	Power to	Change in rules and norms, limiting what is possible for farm workers to do, a political discourse allowing for equality for farm workers

Source: Adjusted from Nieman (2008:23)

Table 4.1 shows the effects of empowerment taking place at different levels. On an *individual level* farm labourers become mobilised to take control of their own lives, become able to set goals and to gain insight into their own abilities; it occurs is when they stop being victims and put aside any feelings of entitlement they may have. In other words, power from within gives the individual the ability to increase self-esteem, the ability to make decisions, take control of life situations, rights and awareness. Empowerment at *group level* is illustrated by the way in which farm workers develop a collective sense of agency that enables them to act collectively, undertake activities and organise themselves into groups. At a societal or *community level*, empowerment results in changes affecting the lives of farm labourers in general, such as in political climates and cultural traditions.

These levels of empowerment can be used as indicators to plan and assess the desired outcomes of programmes developed for or by the farm workers. It is clear from the above that empowerment is concerned with being proactive, as opposed to reactive, through building capacity and utilising strengths.

4.3.2 Capacity building

For empowerment to take place, capacity has to be built at individual, group and community level. Capacity building is an important requirement in social development and the need for and nature of it is discussed in this section.

4.3.2.1 The need for capacity building

Henderson and Thomas (2000:6-7) explain that capacity building has become inseparable from the policy and practice of regeneration. It is applied to both groups and individuals with the emphasis on its systematic approach towards helping residents play a major part in the regeneration of their own communities. Capacity building connects very clearly with community work and refers to the process of change and learning that takes place as a result of community action and activities.

4.3.2.2 The nature of capacity building

James (2002) defines capacity building as “...an ongoing process of helping people, organizations and societies improve and adapt to change around them”. According to James (1998:2), capacity building addresses all areas of economic, socio-cultural, political and environmental processes through a holistic approach. Nieman (2002:31) describes capacity as an elusive concept, referring to a general notion of ‘know-how’, ability, skill and expertise, which implies having the knowledge to carry out certain decisions and functions in line with the definition by James (2006:6).

According to Simpson, Wood and Daw (2003:278), authors such as Cavaye (1999) and Labonte (1999) state that the basis for sustainable, bottom-up community development lies in community capacity building. In this context, capacity building is an important requirement in social development. Midgley and Conley (2010:171) refer to community capacity enhancement, community building and asset building as more popular terms to describe the process of communities learning to address local problems themselves. Easterling (cited in Simpson, Wood and Dawes, 2003:278) defines community capacity as “The set of assets or strengths that residents, individuals collectively, bring to the cause of improving local quality of life”. Labonte (1999) goes on to list the dimensions of community capacity as “skills and knowledge, leadership, a sense of efficacy, norms of trust and reciprocity, social networks and a culture of openness and learning” (Labonte, 1999:432).

All these definitions are solution-based and require individuals, groups and communities to look internally at problem solving strategies in order to place the power back with those experiencing difficulties.

Individuals and communities, especially those struggling against poverty, oppression and isolation, regrettably often do not think of themselves as having an accessible fund of assets (Saleeby, 2002:232). Those outside the community, such as service providers as well as other institutions, act on assumptions about who people really are, and do not regard them as having strengths and competencies. It is for this very reason that capacity building needs to take place in farming communities in order to empower and improve the lives of farm labourers in the Western Cape.

The strengths perspective popularised by Saleeby (1992) is a means to empowering individuals, groups and communities in order to build capacity and will thus be the focus of the next section.

4.3.3 Strengths perspective

Like empowerment and capacity building, the strengths perspective is a key element in social development. The origin and nature of the strengths perspective are discussed in this section.

4.3.3.1 The origin of the strengths perspective

According to Gray (http://www.familiesinsociety.org/articleArchive/2011/92-1_Gray.pdf) this approach was popularised through Dennis Saleeby's edited collection of readings in the *Strengths Perspective in Social Work Practice* (1992; 2nd ed., 1997; 3rd ed., 2002; 4th ed., 2009). It reflects a trend of the past 15 years whereby "social workers have been encouraged to refashion themselves into strengths-based, solution-focused, capacity building, asset creating, motivation enhancing, [and] empowerment specialists". According to Saleeby (2002:1), this approach represents a dramatic departure from conventional social work practice and has received a following in contemporary social work.

4.3.3.2 The nature of the strengths perspective

In 1989, Weick, Papp, Sullivan and Kishardt coined the term 'strengths perspective' to address a system in which practitioners recognised the authority and assets a client possesses in the client's frame of reference to their life story (Eimers, L, n.d:1). The strengths perspective in social work practice emphasises the strengths of the client system and the resources within the client's natural environment (Johnson & Yanca, 2004:431). The strengths perspective is a positive "can do approach" that builds a solid foundation for growth and change (Johnson & Yanca, 2004:130). According to Saleeby (2002:1), the formula is

simple: mobilise clients' strengths (talents, knowledge, capacities, resources) in the service of achieving their goals and visions and the client will have a better quality of life.

According to Gray (http://www.familiesinsociety.org/articleArchive/2011/92-1_Gray.pdf) the strengths perspective in social work has its philosophical roots in Aristotle's teleological theory of human flourishing or eudemonia. Eudemonism holds that people should strive to reach their innate potential through the exercise of their capabilities, most importantly, their reason and intellect. It grounds ethics in human nature and links human flourishing to following the virtues. It is only by living a virtuous life that human beings can actualise their true nature. Hence values exist because of the needs and requirements of human beings. This perspective builds on the belief that all beings have innate capacities and an essence, or imprint, which drives them towards their natural end point – the conditions of their own flourishing through the use of their reason and innate capacities. Gray (2011) points out that Aristotle – and the strengths perspective – give pride of place to notions of freedom, self-determination, and responsibility. Human flourishing – eudemonia – only occurs as a result of individual choice and action.

Eudemonia consists in a person taking charge of his own life so as to develop and maintain those ends (those virtues) for which he alone is responsible and which in most cases will allow him to attain the goods his life requires...If a person is to flourish, he must direct himself...with others in mind.
(http://www.familiesinsociety.org/articleArchive/2011/92-1_Gray.pdf).

Gray, in addition, (*ibid.*) states that the strengths perspective combines these central Aristotelian notions with the Kantian deontological sense of obligation and duty to actualise potential through well-reasoned behaviour. Thus the Strengths Perspective relies on its humanising potential through well-reasoned behaviour.

The strengths perspective is not a theory but rather a way of thinking about what to do and with whom to do it. It provides a distinctive lens for examining the world of practice. Any approach in practice is based on interpretations of the experience of practitioners and clients and is composed of assumptions, rhetoric, ethics, and a set of methods (Saleebey, 2002:20). The strengths perspective relies on empowering individuals, groups and communities to build capacity in developmental social work. It is this empowering community element of the social development perspective that leads to the next section on community development and

community work as a means to promote capacity building for farm workers in the Western Cape.

4.4 COMMUNITY WORK AS AN INTERVENTION METHOD

In this section an in-depth description of community work as an intervention method is discussed.

4.4.1 Conceptualization of community work and community development

Midgley and Conley (2010:168) state that, although the nature of community social work has been debated for more than a century, disagreement about what it involves and even the terminology used to best describe it still abound. The terminology includes community organisation, community development, community action, community building, neighbourhood work, indirect practice and macro-practice. For the purpose of this study, community work practice or just community work is the terminology that will be used and is favoured as the method of intervention to promote social development. Conceptualisation of community work and community development of international and South African authors will be discussed in the following sections.

4.4.1.1 Midgley and Conley

Midgley and Conley (2010:167) state that developmental social work is closely associated with community social work practice. It is also important to note that, while conventional community work practice has emphasised local community capacity building, social services planning, or social activism, developmental community work stresses the use of economic and social investment that meet the material needs of poor communities. However, Midgley and Conley (2010:167) clearly state that developmental community work does not reject the need for organised activities that promote participation and the importance of activism; in fact it recognised community action as an invaluable tool for mobilising local support and for securing much needed resources that should augment developmental intervention.

4.4.1.2 Henderson and Thomas

Henderson and Thomas (2000:3) point out that community work has to do with intervention in communities – the approach, method and skills used – while community development, on

the other hand, refers to the process of change and development that takes place in communities.

In addition to Midgley and Conley (2010), Henderson and Thomas (2003) and other influential authors also write about the differences in meanings, scope and terminologies used to describe community development and community work practice.

4.4.1.3 Gray

Gray (1998:58) stated that community development is the intervention method most likely to achieve the desired goals set out in the social development perspective.

4.4.1.4 Lombard

Lombard (1992:206) states that the aim of community development is the improvement of the quality of life of the individual and the community on the physical, social, economic and political terrain of development, to help establish balanced growth resulting in social stability, prosperity and progress in the community, while the aim of community work is to establish a balance between a social welfare need and the social work resources and to maintain this balance once it has been established. Thus community development is aimed at broad comprehensive development while community work is aimed at social development, regarding the social function of the community in particular.

4.4.1.5 Weyers

According to Weyers (2011:111), a community development model should be used if a social worker is working with communities or segments of communities

... that are badly organized; that are dominated by external systems, in which there is conflict or poor co-operation between members; in which the members do not have a self-help attitude and problem solving skills; that have stagnated and that lack a vision of the future; that display strong feelings of powerlessness and a dependency on outside resources (e.g. the government or the farmer must provide syndrome); that do not have adequate physical and economic infrastructures and/or indecision is the order of the day.

Weyers (2011:6) furthermore defines community work as

... a method of social work that consists of the various processes and helping acts of the social worker that are targeted at the community system, as well as

its sub-systems and certain external systems, with the purpose of bringing about the required social change with the help of especially community development, social planning, community education, social marketing and social action as practice model.

This study focuses on the need for accessible intervention that builds capacity and promotes social development for farm workers in the Western Cape. Ross (1992) and Rothman (1995) conceptualised models for community work and their contribution is discussed in the next section.

4.4.2 Community work models

Ross (1992) was one of the first to propose three forms of community social work that he labelled planning, process and reform. Ross associated the planning orientation with welfare agency coordination and the process orientation with neighbourhood capacity enhancement. Ross (1955) did not regard social activism as a legitimate form of community social work, but believed that the profession's social reform activities should be viewed as an appropriate social work activity (Midgley & Conley, 2010:168). Subsequently, Rothman (1968) published a widely cited typology that also recognised the three distinctive types or models for community work intervention discussed in this section. While model A, Locality Development, is the model of community work treated in this study, it is important to note the other models of community work intervention to delineate the levels of capacity building that are available. In many instances, the models of community work intervention used change during the course of the intervention process or at a certain point in a project as capacity develops in the target group.

4.4.2.1 Model A, Locality development

Locality development is more commonly referred to as community development. This model proposes that community change may be pursued optimally through broad participation of a wide spectrum of people at the local community level in goal developing and action. This model of community work intervention can be defined as "...a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community with its active participation and the fullest possible self reliance on the community initiative" (Cox, Erlich, Rothman & Tropman, 1987:5). According to Cox *et al.* (1987:5), themes emphasised in locality development include democratic procedures, voluntary cooperation, self-help, development of indigenous leadership, and educational objectives. The major focus is on the

process of community building. The process of community building, working with a broad representative cross section of the community (action committee), forms a crucial part of the intervention strategies. Social workers attempt to achieve change objectives by enabling the community to establish consensus via the identification of common interests (<http://www.infed.org/community/b-compar.htm> [14/06/11]).

Thus the community development model aims to change the community through broad participation by a wide spectrum of people at local community level for determining goals and taking civic action. Given the historical background and current socio-economic circumstances of farm workers in the Western Cape as described in Chapters 2 and 3, the nature of Model A made it the chosen model for community work intervention to promote capacity building of farm workers and this remains the focus of this study.

4.4.2.2 Model B, Social planning

According to Cox *et al.* (1987:5), the social planning model emphasises a technical process of problem solving with regard to substantive social problems, such as delinquency, housing, mental health, i.e. rational, deliberately planned and controlled change. Community participation may vary from much too little, depending on the problem. This approach proposes that change can be complex and requires experts such as doctors, lawyers, town planners and social workers to initiate it. Cox *et al.* (1987:6) state “By and large, the concern here is with establishing, arranging, and developing goods and services to people who need them”. This is a top-down approach and is prevalent in many community work initiatives.

4.4.2.3 Model C, Social action

The social action model is often employed by groups and organisations which seek to alter institutional policies or to make changes in distribution of power (<http://www.infed.org/community/b-compar.htm> [14/06/11]). The focus is on disadvantaged segments of the population that need to be organised, perhaps in alliance with others in order to make adequate demands on larger communities for increased resources or treatment more in accordance with social justice or democracy. Examples of this approach would include feminist action groups, civil rights and black power groups (Cox *et al.*, 1987:6).

There is considerable overlap between the elements of each model, but the focus on difference is useful in that it points attention to dimensions such as process, the role of the plan, and the tension between the state and dominant groups and those who believe themselves to be excluded (<http://www.infed.org/community/b-compar.htm>). These models

are not mutually exclusive but can operate discretely; model A in many respects is the basis for the other models to become elective.

In explaining the models that can be used for community work intervention, it was already emphasised that these develop according to a process. The process followed in implementing any of these three models will be the focus of the next section.

4.4.3 The community work process

The point of view held by Ross (1967:40) is that 'process' refers to the conscious or unconscious, voluntary or involuntary movement from (1) the identification of the problem or need to (2) the solving thereof or (3) to attaining the objective in the community. The problem-solving process directs the handling of the problem or an identified need.

Dunham (1970:4) as cited in Lombard specifies that community work deals primarily with problem solving (Lombard, 1992:238). Regardless of the model for community work intervention which is selected, the application of the problem-solving process is centrally situated in community work intervention or practice.

Due to the indigenous nature of the study, the conceptualisation of South African authors such as Lombard (1992) and Weyers (2011) will now be described. According to Lombard (1992), the phases in the process of community work fall in a specific time period and direction although there is a cyclic aspect to this process, too, development can occur simultaneously in two or more phases. The cyclic nature of the process implies that these phases move forward, but at the same time allow room to return to previous phases and for blending of certain aspects in different phases. Table 4.2 outlines the process of community work related to Rothman's (1968) three community work models.

The process of community work in relation to Rothman's community social work practice models

Table 4.2: Phase 1 - Situation analysis

Phases	Community work	Social planning model	Social action model	Locality development model
Phase 1: situation analysis Assessment Profile study	The community worker assesses the needs , problems and assets of the community, emphasising social needs and functioning The community worker undertakes a comprehensive profile study of the community, focusing on social needs, social problems and social assets	Expert in charge	Expert in conjunction with activist groups	Expert in conjunction with target group

Source: Adapted from Lombard and Weyers

According to Lombard (1992:245), the primary aim of the situation analysis is the collection of data to enlighten the worker about the phenomena, groups, problems and organisations they will be working with. The ultimate aim of the *assessment* and the situation analysis – to compile a profile of the community – should provide a complete picture of who and what the community consists of and should thus supply a point of departure for the consecutive phases in the process. The situation analysis is important in all three of Rothman's (1968) models.

Table 4.3: Phase 2 - Identification and definition of needs and problems and assets

Phases	Community work	Social planning model	Social action model	Locality development model
Phase 2: Identification and definition of needs, problems and assets Analysis Priority problems and needs, assets Motivation of the community	The community analyses the identified problems and assets. The community identifies and defines needs, problems and assists concerning the social functioning in relation to the organised social services and resources The community determines the priority of needs, and assets. The community worker utilises discomfort within the community about their social disfunctioning in order to motivate them to become actively involved and to participate in the satisfying of their needs and developing of their assists.	Executed by the expert	Executed by expert in conjunction with activist groups	Expert is guided by the target group

Source: Adapted from Lombard and Weyers

The identification and definition of needs, problems and assets is the next phase. According to Cohen (1978:227), as cited in Lombard (1992:253), the definition of the problem is the first and decisive task of the process; a problem or need is only really identified when it has been demarcated and defined clearly. Lombard (1992:253) further explains that once a problem or a need has been demarcated, it may lead to the identification of its cause, which may lead to the real need basic to the problem, which thus far only manifested itself as the symptoms that may be addressed.

According to Lombard (1992:255) a felt need does not always reflect the real need of the community and a community should be guided to differentiate between the two. Kotze and Swanepoel (1983:13), as cited in Lombard (1992:255), think real needs, when looked at objectively, are those that the community should have. Johnson (1983:9) as cited in Lombard (1992:55), however points out that, by taking the felt needs into consideration, the

community work practice complies with basic principle of social work, namely to start where the client finds himself. Thus both the felt need and the real needs can motivate a community into action.

Kretzmann (1993:13-14) states that every single person has capacities, abilities, gifts or assets. Kretzmann (1993:13) refers to the raw material for community building as the capacity of the individual members. One of the reasons this basic resource is underdeveloped in weak communities is because the community has come to focus largely on the deficiencies rather than the capacities of its members. This deficiency focus is usually described as concerns about the needs of local members. “And these needs are understood to be problems, shortcomings, maladies and dilemmas of people” (Kretzmann, 1993:13). Kretzmann (1993:13) makes reference to the glass of water that is filled to the middle. The glass is half full and half empty. All individuals, likewise, have capacities and they also have deficiencies. However, the part of people that builds powerful communities is the capacity part of its members. Nel (2006:234) states that the assets-based approach presents a viable alternative to the problems and needs-based approach. According to Nel (2006:234), it is a capacity-building approach which relies on visionary community-based leadership, where ‘anticipatory’ needs determine what is required to be done to move forward in the future.

This chapter has incorporated the more recent assets-based approach (Nel, 2006:234-248) into Lombard’s (1992) conceptualisation of the process for community work intervention. Nel (2006:234) states that the policies and practices of social and community development has gained wide recognition since the abolition of apartheid in 1994 as the most appropriate way to address the inequities of South African society, and applies to farm workers as one of the most marginalised groups in the Western Cape .

According to Henderson and Thomas (2000:86), the worker has to establish which action the community thinks will be effective and how much they wish to contribute to the action. Henderson and Thomas (2000:86) advise that the worker has to ask the following three questions; (1) whether there are any people ready to go into action; (2) if so, whether they want to go into action; and (3) on what conditions are they prepared to do so and who is willing to contribute. Positive answers to these questions will indicate that the community is ready to go onto the next phase in the process. Tools that can be used in this process are a neighbourhood or community needs map along with a community assets map. The

importance of assets is imperative and should include a local institution, citizens' association and gifts of individuals. The focus should be on internal and external resources available to the community.

In Rothman's (1968) three models of community work, social planning requires the expert to identify the needs and problems; the social action model may use both the expert/worker and the community; while the locality development model places the emphasis on the community's input in the identification of the need/problem

Table 4.4: Phase 3 - Representation by the community

Phases	Community work	Social planning model	Social action model	Locality development model
Phase 3: Representation by the community Founding an action committee	The community establishes an action committee to address community needs to utilise assets. The community involves all disciplines and resources from the community which can address the needs related to functioning of the community	No action committee is used	An action committee can be used to steer the project	Action committee is imperative as projects are based on action committee decisions

Source: Adapted from: Lombard and Weyers

Representation by the community is of utmost importance when using the locality development model as developed by Rothman (1968). While it is not required in the social planning model, it can also be used as a useful tool in the social action model. Homan (2004:258) recognises that the human capital of an enterprise/community is its most valuable resource, and with this understanding a social worker will create change in a way that gives others a stake in the outcome and the efforts to achieve it. From a social development perspective, empowerment of individuals, groups and communities is of utmost importance and can be achieved in all three models of community intervention as presented by Rothman, Erlich and Tropman (1995:42). In the locality development model, the use of empowerment is to build capacity in a community to make collaborative and informed decisions, promoting

feelings of personal mastery by residents. In the social planning model, the use of empowerment is finding out from the consumers about their needs for services and informing the consumers of their service choices. The social action model uses empowerment to achieve its objectives of promoting a feeling of mastery among participants.

According to Lombard (1992:261), an action committee should be a communication channel within the community; it should aim to achieve a realistic level of autonomy in the management of the community's own affairs. To achieve this, the community should have direct participation in the planning and decision-making processes, thus the action committee should keep the community informed about their planning so as to decide on the most effective plan of action. There should be regular meetings between the action committee and the community to give feedback regarding the process of the project and to obtain new guidelines concerning future action from the community. The action committee is there to guide the community and does not aim to take the community's project into their own hands (Lombard, 1992:262).

Table 4.5: Phase 4 - Planning

Phases	Community work	Social planning model	Social action model	Locality development model
Phase 4: Planning Aim formulation Time schedules Resources Target group/community Alternative plans Selection of plan Preparing the community Formulating a programme and project	The action committee - formulates objectives according to the goals and draws up a time schedule - determines resources aimed at satisfying the need(s) or problems - specifies the target group (community) for the project - formulates an alternative plan(s) for these specific problems or needs - The community selects the most suitable plan(s) The action committee - prepares the community for the implementation of the plan(s) - plans the methods for evaluation of the project (phase 6).	Expert formulates aims, time frame, target group, plans, and then prepares the community	Group effort of expert and possible groups or action committee guides this process	Action committee takes full responsibility

Source: Adapted from Lombard and Weyers

Planning, according to Ferrinho (1980:62) as cited in Lombard (1992:262), is “...to interpret the situation creatively, to ensure consensus on planned action, and to gain people’s participation in implementing the plan. Without this the people will not be able to mould their future with their own minds and their own hands”. When planning a project, one has to start by formulating clear goals and objectives on the basis of the above-mentioned steps. These objectives should be realistic and feasible and must be formulated to match limited resources (Lombard, 1992:262). According to Henderson and Thomas (2000:87), the formulation of goals and priorities is largely concerned with:

- Making choices regarding on which of several problems and competing communities or smaller community groups to focus in respect of the problems and issues previously identified;
- Selection of a number of existing groups and organisations to work with, if any, and/or deciding what help to give to establish new residents’ organisations;

- Deciding whether to respond to all demands for aid received from organisations in the community during the situation analysis;
- Deciding on how to react to the demands of the employer organisation; and
- Deciding which of the identified problems/issues should be prioritised.

After formulating the goals, the worker will have to identify roles to execute the plan of intervention as this plan may never be static and may have to be adapted as the process proceeds (Lombard, 1992:264). In doing this, the availability of resources needs to be established. According to Lombard (1992:265), resources can include money, time, material resources, specialist knowledge and other methods or people (manpower/assets) which may help in satisfying the needs of the community.

According to Weyers (2011), formulation of programmes and projects represents the final task that should be undertaken in the planning phase. It involves all the identified and selected elements to be brought together in a coherent, integrated and preferably recorded (written) plan of action.

The questions of whom should undertake certain task, where the project should be launched from and when the project should be initiated and executed are all part of the planning process. Part of the planning process should include an alternative plan to deal with specific problems, needs and assets/resources. In the social planning model (Rothman, 1968), the expert or the social worker will do the planning and then select the most suitable plan; in the social action model there could be a combination of both the expert and the community; while in the locality development model, the community is part of both the planning and the selection of the plan and then is involved in preparing the community for the project. Homan (2004:206) discusses 'powerful planning'. According to Homan (2004:206), the community is the context of the action, and power gives strength and purpose to the concerns of the community. Planning puts that concentrated power to use by providing the approach and direction for actions by community members and should be a continuous process. Through involving the 'target' community in the planning process, elements of the strengths perspective will be utilised and the community will be required to use their assets and resources to empower themselves and build capacity in their community.

Table 4.6: Phase 5 - Implementation of the planning

Phases	Community work	Social planning model	Social action model	Locality development model
Phase 5: Implementation of the planning Selection plan Adjustment of the selection plan	The selected plan(s) to address the problems and needs which impede social functioning, is/are implemented The plan(s) is/are adjusted, if necessary	Expert executes the project	Expert in conjunction with other groups	The Action Committee and target group implement the project themselves

Source: Adapted from Lombard and Weyers

Implementation of the plan

The implementation of the plan includes the transformation of the plan into action. According to Lombard (1992:268) the most important requirements for action during the implementation phase is that action should concur with the planning, be aim-oriented, include participation at grass-roots level, be coordinated and be adapted from time to time.

Table 4.7: Phase 6 - Evaluation

Phases	Community work	Social planning model	Social action model	Locality development model
Phase 6: Evaluation	The community worker monitors and evaluates the progress of the community work process	Expert evaluates the project	Expert in conjunction with other groups	Action committee and target group evaluate the project themselves

Source: Adapted from Lombard and Weyers

Evaluating a project is of utmost importance to determine whether the project has contributed to achieving the envisaged objectives and, if so, to what degree (Lombard, 1992:269). From a social development perspective, the 'target' community should evaluate the outcome of the project as this is also a skill that will build capacity and empower the individuals and the community as a whole. The whole process recycles to the situation analysis phase again (see Table 4.2.1).

For the purpose of this study, capacity-building initiatives for farm labourers on Solms-Delta are to be evaluated to determine whether these projects have improved the quality of life for the farm labourers involved and, if so, to what degree. It is through this rigorous process that successful projects and programmes are born and capacity-building programmes for farm labourers are facilitated in the Western Cape, yielding social development. This process leads to the next section on principles of good practice when involved in community work programmes which promote social development.

4.4.4 Principles of good practice in social development

Nieman (2002:61) has identified a few enduring themes that have been identified in programmes promoting social development in its true sense. These elements or criteria include: participation in planning, decision making and implementation, grouping and networking, learning, training and acquiring knowledge and innovation. Nieman (2002:90) states that participation at grass-roots level is an essential element of social development, as is also clearly stated in the locality development model (Lombard, 1992). Green and Nieman (2003:161) explain that innovation will be encouraged through the utilisation of groups and networks, and ensuring that training is available. To ensure capacity building and empowerment of farm workers in the Western Cape, these criteria are essential for success in the community work process and from a social development perspective as outlined in the above-mentioned process of community work intervention. Social workers have an important role to play and a contribution to make by utilising the social development approach to address the problems brought about by underdevelopment and poverty in South Africa (Nieman, 2002:8).

4.5 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, models and intervention strategies aimed at empowerment initiatives through using the strengths perspective as a point of departure have been discussed to demonstrate the ability to contribute significantly to the socio-economic improvement of farm workers if conducted in a sustainable manner. The Community or Locality Development Model is used as the chosen method of intervention when assessing the need for skills development for farm workers in the Western Cape as it incorporates aspects of the social development perspective. This chapter incorporated the more recent assets-based approach (Nel, 2006: 234-248) into

Lombard's (1992) conceptualisation of the process for community work intervention. According to Nel (2006:234), the policies and practices of social and community development have gained wide recognition as the most appropriate way to address the inequities of South African society since the abolition of apartheid in 1994, and can be applied to farm workers, one of the most marginalised groups in the Western Cape. The locality development model requires the community members to focus on their assets/strengths to empower themselves and build capacity within their own community.

In the following chapter, the participants responses to capacity-building initiatives that took place on Solms-Delta wine estate that were gathered via semi-structured interviews will be analysed and a conclusion drawn to demonstrate the efficacy of the interventions.

CHAPTER 5

THE PERCEPTIONS AND VIEWS OF FARM WORKERS INVOLVED IN CAPACITY-BUILDING INITIATIVES ON SOLMS-DELTA WINE ESTATE IN THE WESTERN CAPE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, South African wine producers have faced profound changes, including the transition to democracy, deregulation of the industry, the extension of labour legislation to agriculture, and the re-opening of the international market (Nelson, Martin & Ewert, 2005:542). Along with these changes considerable pressure has been placed on farmers to act in a socially responsible manner. According to the Wine Industry Transformation Charter (2007:1), “South Africa’s past, present and future find unique expression in the wine industry, which reflects greatness and performance, but also painful reality of our country’s history, the remarkable political and economic transition that we live through today, and the promise of shared growth and development for all South Africans in years ahead”. Despite the lived experience of farm workers in the Western Cape which has been irrevocably influenced by slavery and the ‘dop’ system (Falletisch, 2008:1), some wine farms in the Western Cape have already made headway in influencing the daily lives of farm workers from a social developmental perspective. For the purpose of this research, the focus was on Solms-Delta Wine Estate to establish the value of formal training and programmes for farm workers undertaken in the endeavour to enrich the lives of those previously disadvantaged due to South Africa’s political history of racial discrimination, with emphasis on this marginalised group of farm workers in the Western Cape.

In light of the above, the literature review was undertaken to provide a basis for the empirical study, which was aimed at the investigation of the nature of the capacity-building initiatives on Solms-Delta that have influenced the quality of the lives of farm workers from a social development perspective. In this chapter the results of the empirical study are presented and discussed. In order to best present the findings of the study, the data are presented in tabular, graphic, or narrative form, where relevant.

5.2 RESEARCH METHODS

In this section the research methods are presented.

5.2.1 Preparation

The researcher worked as a social worker on Solms-Delta Wine Estate from 2007 to 2010 and thus was aware of the capacity-building initiatives, the social problems and many of the assets within this community. The literature review conducted within the research field for the purpose of this study established a frame of reference, and the point of departure for the research. Local and international literature published within the field of the social sciences and relevant legislation were reviewed. Mouton (2001:87) points out that a literature review aims to avoid duplication and suggest that 'gaps' in the research field can thus be filled. Once a comprehensive literature review had been conducted and the 'gap' identified, the researcher gained permission from both the farm owner and the participants to conduct an exploratory study on the wine estate to establish how intervention strategies that build capacity have influenced the quality of life of farm workers on Solms-Delta.

5.2.2 Sample

Availability or purposive sampling was used for the purpose of this study (Babbie & Mouton, 2004:166) as the researcher was reliant on the participants' availability and willingness to participate in this case study.

The criteria for inclusion were as follows: the participants had to be eighteen years of age or older; they could be male or female and had to be employed by Solms-Delta. The participants had to have completed some kind of formal training in their specific line of work and/or be actively involved in one or more capacity-building programmes for a period of three months or longer. The participants were required to speak only on behalf of themselves in order to determine the influence these training opportunities and programmes have had on their lives as individuals, as a group and as a community.

Out of 114 people currently employed by Solms-Delta, more than half (exact number has not been recorded to date) have participated in formal training or have joined capacity-building programmes which have been made available to them on Solms-Delta.

5.2.3 Method for data collection

For the purpose of this study, the three methods used for data collection were those listed by Babbie *et al.* (2004:80) as "A review of the related social sciences and other pertinent

literature; a survey of people who have had practical experience of the programme being studied; and an analysis of insight-stimulation examples”.

5.2.4 Data collection instrument

Twenty-one semi-structured interviews were conducted in order to establish the role that the formal training and other programmes available to farm workers on Solms-Delta have played in the participants’ lives.

5.2.5 Challenges and limitations

Interviews took place during harvest time, so the farm workers were quite busy and often tired. Some of the farm workers who initially agreed to take part in this study were not available during working hours due to their involvement with work responsibilities at this busy time of year.

Many of the participants had also been interviewed previously by journalists and historians regarding other aspects of farm life. Many of them felt that there has been enough publicity in and around what is being done on Solms-Delta and thus did not want to be interviewed again. For some of the farm workers, being interviewed in the past had been a negative experience due to the lack of sensitivity displayed by those conducting the interviews, thus they were not willing to participate in this study.

5.3 RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

What follows is a report of the investigation conducted from a social development perspective on the nature of the capacity-building initiatives on Solms-Delta that have influenced the quality of lives of farm workers. Findings are based on the data obtained from the questionnaire used for the semi-structured interviews. The data are presented together with an interpretation thereof and taking account of results from the literature review. The findings are presented by means of the schematic exposition of the main and sub-areas that emerged from the empirical study.

Table 5.1: Schematic exposition of main areas covered by the empirical study

Main areas	Sub-areas / themes	Sub-themes	Categories
1. Details of the participants	Age Gender Life partner Number of people in household		
2. Education	Qualification of participants		
3. Work experience	First job on the farm Current position on farm Training received to equip participants for their current work		
4. Income per month	Current income per month		
5. The socio-economic circumstances of farm workers	Theme 1: Difficulties experienced in the farm community	A. Substance abuse	1. Alcohol 2. Drugs
6. Social development	Theme 2: Involvement of the participants in capacity building initiatives Theme 3: Training Theme 4: Outcomes of training initiatives	A. Holistic development opportunities to school going children B. Music education C. Formal training D. Farm workers' own initiated projects A. Outcomes of training initiatives	1. Early childhood development (ECD) 1. Music Van de Caab project (FME) 1. In the line of work 1. Rugby, ATKV, Netball, Drum majorettes 1. To increase knowledge 2. To provide recreation
7. Empowerment	Theme 5: Changes on an individual level after involvement in programme Theme 6: Changes on group level as a result of	A. Self-esteem B. Independence C. Decision-making A. Respect	1. Self-image 2. Confidence 3. Pride 4. Communication 1. Independence 1. Confidence 2. Pride 3. Leadership 1. Recognition 2. Role models

	participation in the programme Theme 7: The ability of the community to express their needs	A. Communication	1. Social worker 2. Managers 3. HR worker 4. Monthly meetings
8. The Strengths Perspective	Theme 8: Individual strengths identified and enhanced during participation in the programme	A. Strength	1. Ability to work with people 2. Commitment
9. Community Work	Theme 9: Assessment Theme 10: The involvement of the farm workers in the identification of needs, problems and assets in the community Theme 11: Responsibility for planning of initiative work taken by the community Theme 12: Types of broader community involvement Theme 13: General perception of the value of the initiatives	A. Needs A. Not involved B. Involvement A. Self-responsibility B. Management initiative A. Types of involvement A. Personal B. Community	1. Need for child care and education 2. Need for recreation in the community 3. Need to improve skills and knowledge in line with work 1. Capacity-building initiatives presented by management 2. Unspecified 1. Community discussions 2. Management 1. Own planning 2. Group planning 1. Formal programme 1. Acquired skills 2. Recreation: keeping the community busy 3. Constructive care for children 1. Recreation 2. Opportunities 1. Social situation 2. Skills
10. Other suggestions	Theme 14: Additional initiatives needed and the reasons for their implementation Theme 16: Advise to others who want to get involved in a programme	A. Recreation B. Education C. Economic A. Participation	1. Sport 2. Scouts 1. Adult evening classes 1. Women's group 1. Encouragement

5.3.1 Details of the participants

The participants (n = 21) were asked to give details about their age, gender, whether they had a life partner or not and the number of people living in their house. A discussion on each aspect of the identifying details follows.

5.3.1.1 Age

The participants (n = 21) were asked about their age. Figure 5.1 presents the results.

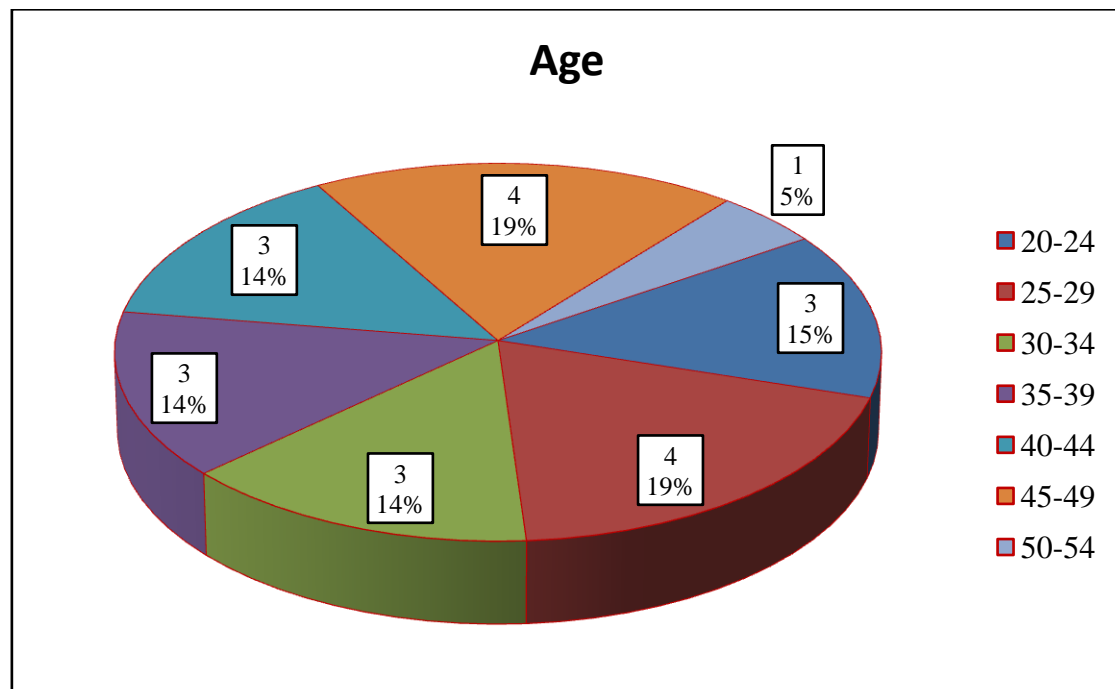


Figure 5.1: Age of participants

n = 21

The figure shows that four (19%) of the participants were between the ages of 25 and 29 and four (19%) of the participants were between the ages of 45 and 49, while three (14%) of the participants were between the ages of 18 and 24, 30 and 34, 35 and 39 and 40 and 44, while only one (5%) was older than 50. Thus the age of participants varied between 18 as the youngest and 54 as the oldest.

5.3.1.2 Gender

The following is a breakdown of the participants' (n = 21) gender.

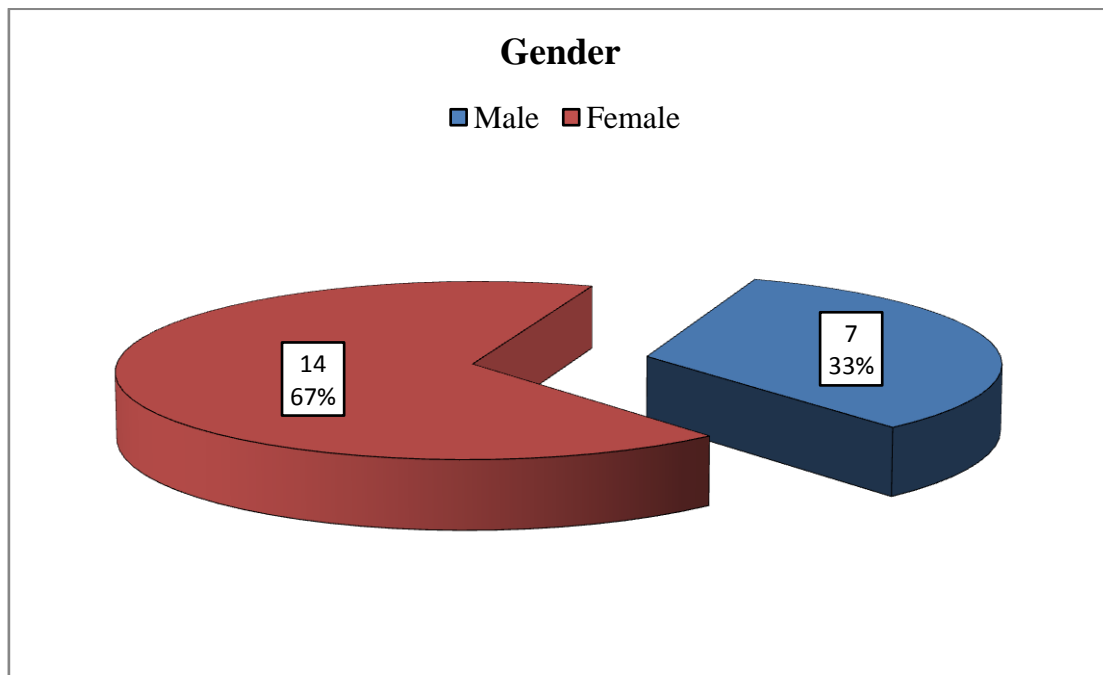


Figure 5.2: Gender of participants

n = 21

The majority of participants were female (14 or 67%), while the minority were male (7 or 33%).

5.3.1.3 Life partner

Participants were asked to specify whether they had a life partner or not.

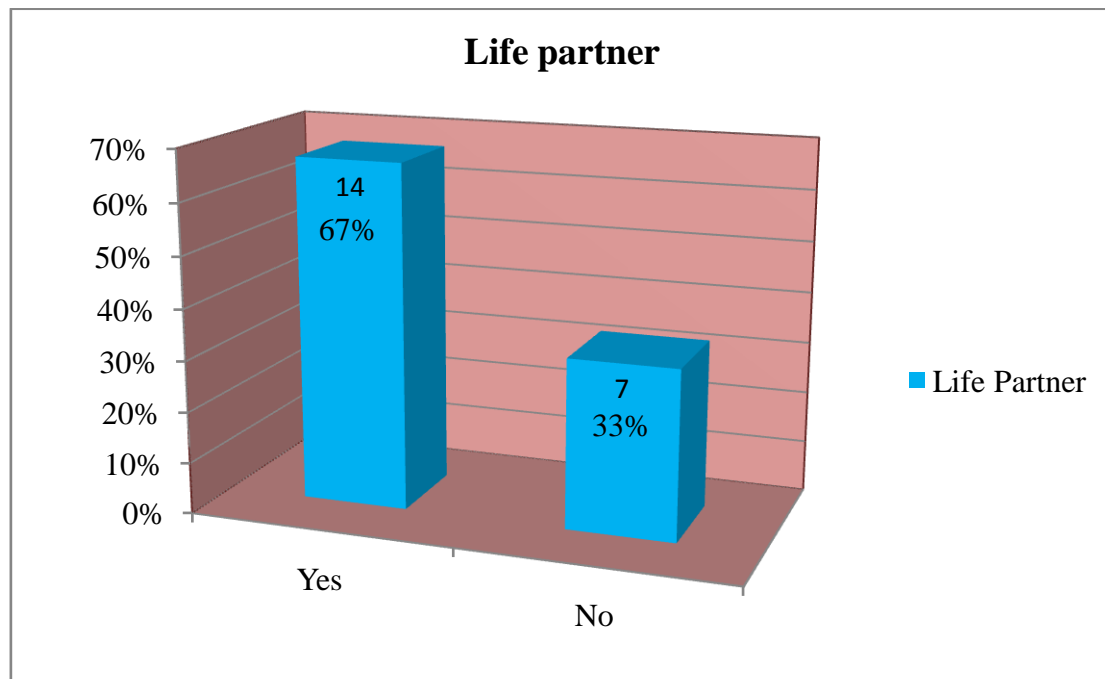


Figure 5.3: Life partner

n = 21

Most of the participants (14 or 67%) had life partners while the rest (7 or 33%) were single.

5.3.1.4 Number of people in household

The participants (n = 21) were asked to specify how many people lived in their house.

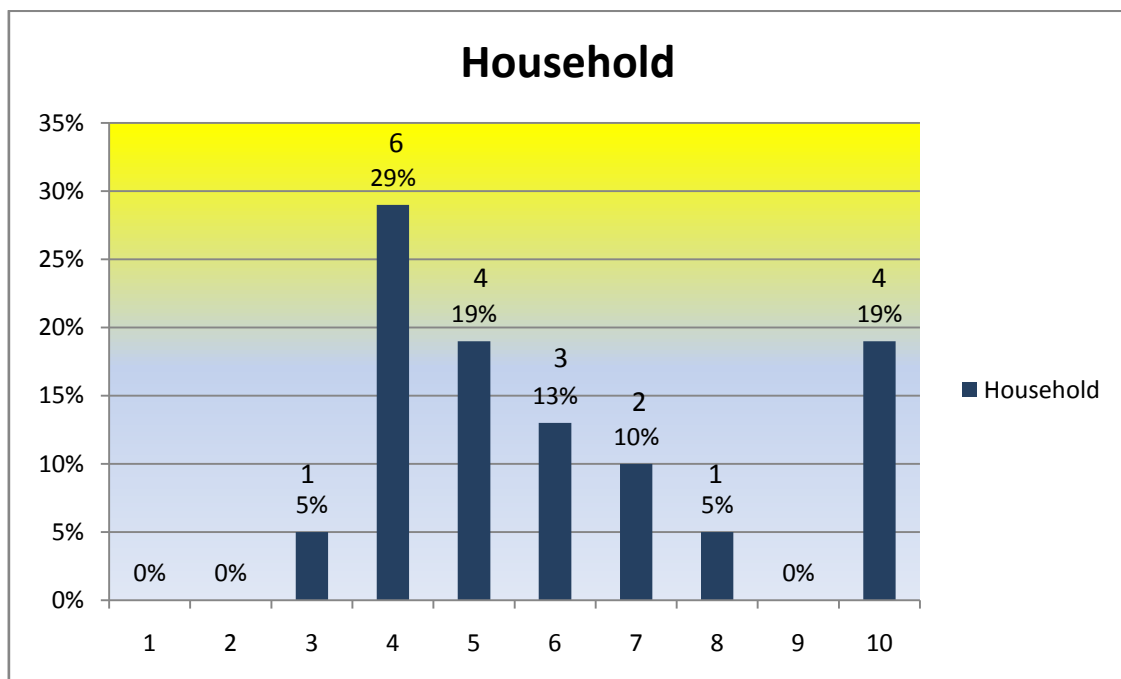


Figure 5.4: Number of people living in one household

n = 21

There were no households among the participants consisting of one or two people. The largest segment (6 or 29%) of participants lived in a house with four occupants. Four participants (19%) lived in a house with five occupants; while another four (19%) lived in a house with 10 occupants. Three of the participants (13%) lived in houses with six occupants. While one (5%) of the participants lived in a house with three people and another one of the participants live in a house with eight occupants. Therefore it was evident that overcrowding was of major concern to the participants.

5.3.2 Education

The participants (n = 21) were asked about the highest educational qualification attained. This gives an indication of their level of education.

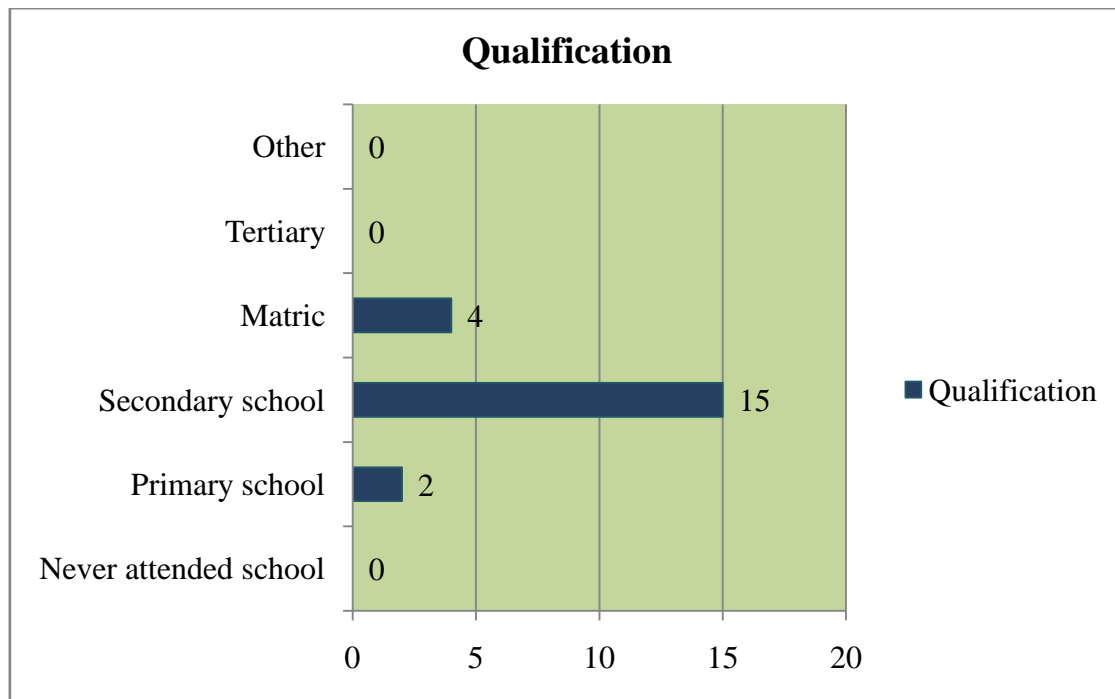


Figure 5.5: Educational qualification

n = 21

The majority (15, or 71%) of participants attended secondary school, four (19%) matriculated, while two (10%) only had primary school education. In other words, all the participants had attended school but none had progressed to tertiary education or any other form of higher education. According to Viljoen (2008:31), farm workers are considered to have the lowest level of education in South Africa and are regarded as an ‘unschooled’ occupation group.

5.3.3 Work experience

The participants (n = 21) were asked to say what their first job on the farm entailed.

5.3.3.1 First job on the farm

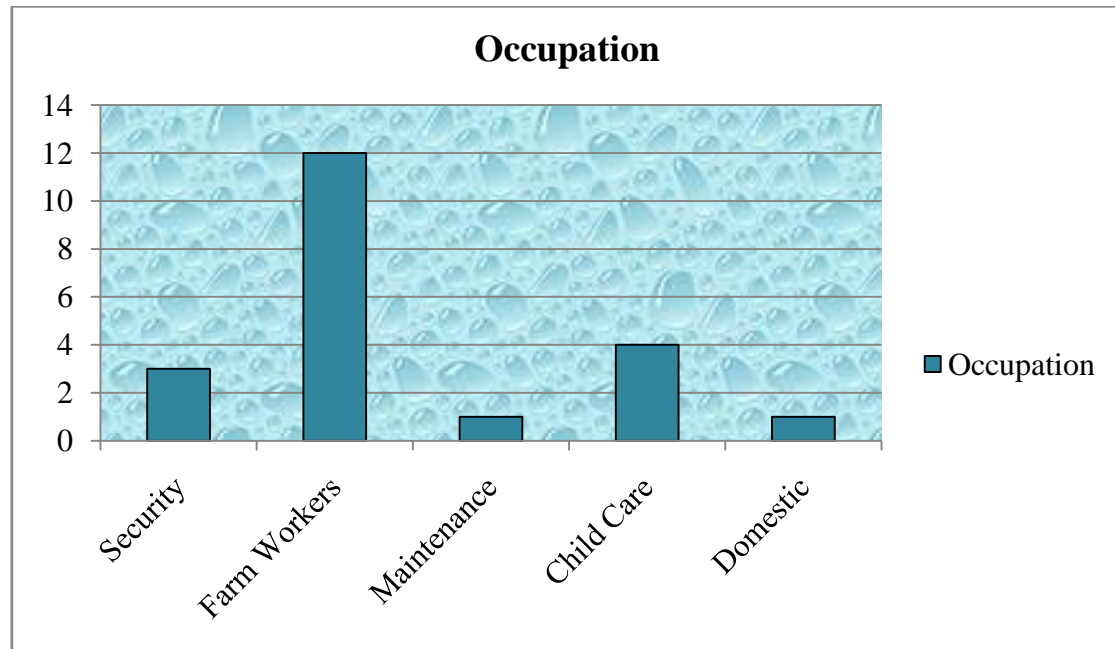


Figure 5.6: First job on farm

n = 21

The majority (12 or 57%) of participants worked on the land, four (19%) worked in child care, three (14%) worked in security, while one (5%) worked in maintenance and one respondent (5%) worked as a domestic worker. Therefore a wide range of positions were filled, with the majority being farm workers.

5.3.3.2 Current position on farm

The participants were asked to name their current job on the farm.

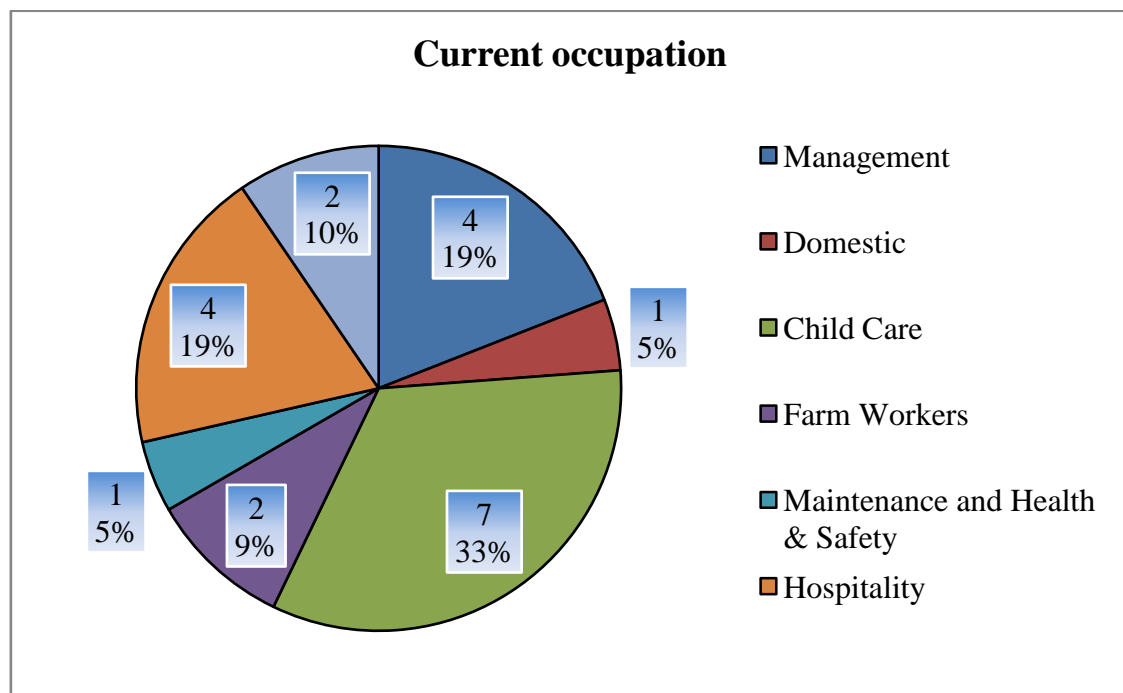


Figure 5.7: Current jobs on the farm

n = 21

Job distribution changed considerably over the preceding ten years, with the largest segment (7 or 33%) of participants engaged in providing child care for farm staff. The next largest group (4 or 19%) were employed in managerial positions and another four (19%) were working in hospitality. Only two (10%) of participants were still working as farm workers/labourers and another two (10%) were working in the museum and with retail wine sales; a single participant (5%) was working as a domestic worker and another in maintenance, health and safety (5%). It is thus evident that capacity building initiatives on Solms-Delta has led to a drastic change in the type of work offered to the participants.

5.3.3.3 The kind of training received to equip participants for their current work

The participants (n = 21) were asked what kind of training they had received to equip them for the work they were doing at the time of the interviews.

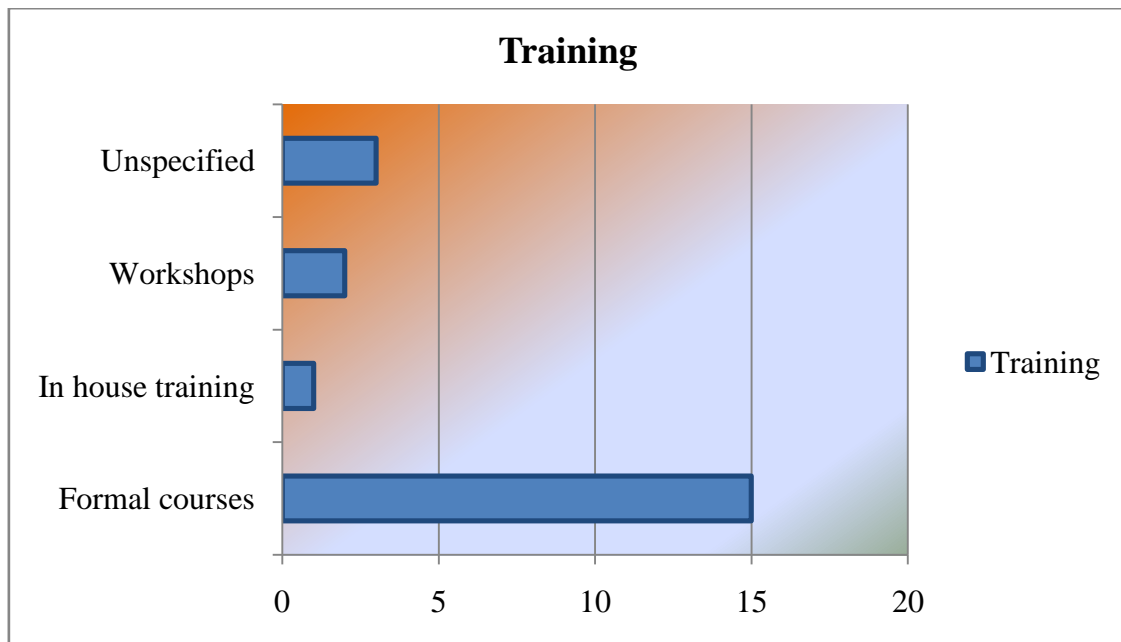


Figure 5.8: Training received for current job

n = 21

The majority (15, or 71%) indicated that they received training through formal courses, three (14%) did not specify what kind of training they received, while two (10%) indicated that they attended workshops and one (5%) said that in-house training had been provided. Findings correspond with one of the themes identified by Nieman (2002:61), namely that what promotes social development is training, acquiring skills and innovation. Green and Nieman (2003:161) explain that participant's innovation will be enhanced by ensuring that training is available.

5.3.4 Income per month

Participants were asked what their income per month was.

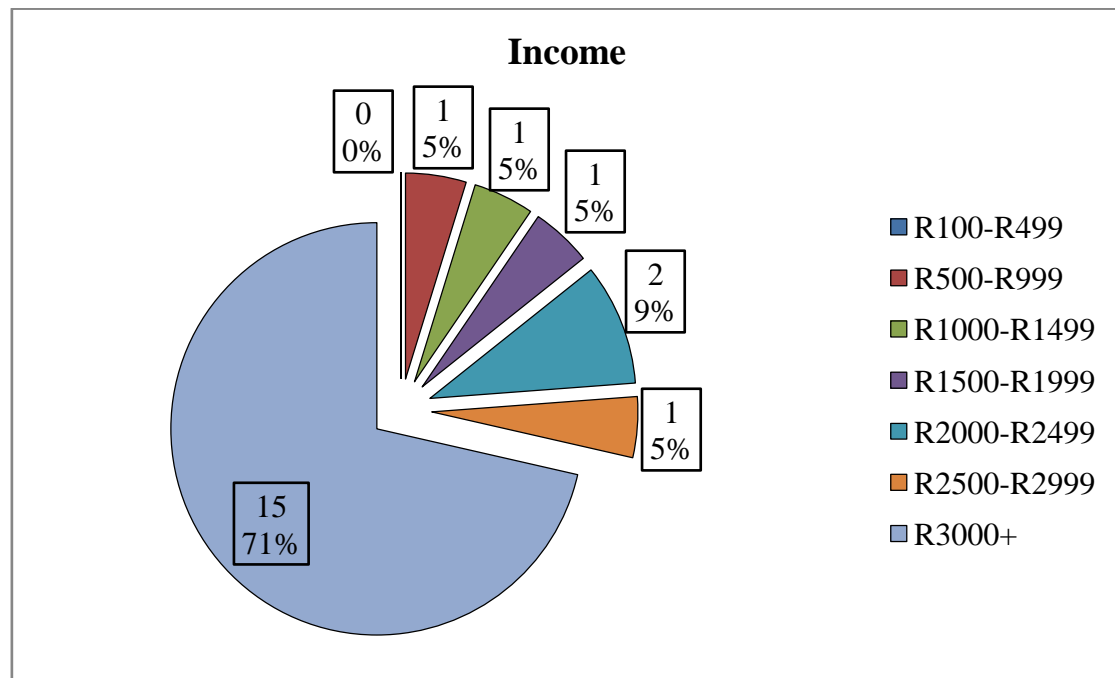


Figure 5.9: Income per month

n = 21

From the figure above it can be seen that the majority (15 or 71%) of the participants received a salary of over R3000 per month. Two (10%) received a salary of R2000-R2400 while one (5%) received remuneration of between R500 and R999, One (5%) of the agricultural workers received between R1000 and R1499 and the other (5%) received between R2500 and R2999. Salaries were based on the participant's line of work and job description. The department of labour increased the minimum wage for farm workers on the first March 2011 to R1 375.95 per month or R7.51 per hour (www.skillsportal.co.za [16/07/2012])). According to the participants most were earning well above the minimum wage.

5.3.5 The socio-economic circumstances of farm workers

The following section applies to the participant's perception of the socio-economic status of farm workers. The participants (n = 21) were asked to give an indication of the level of

priority they give to certain focus areas which can be regarded as difficulties that are prevalent in the farming community.

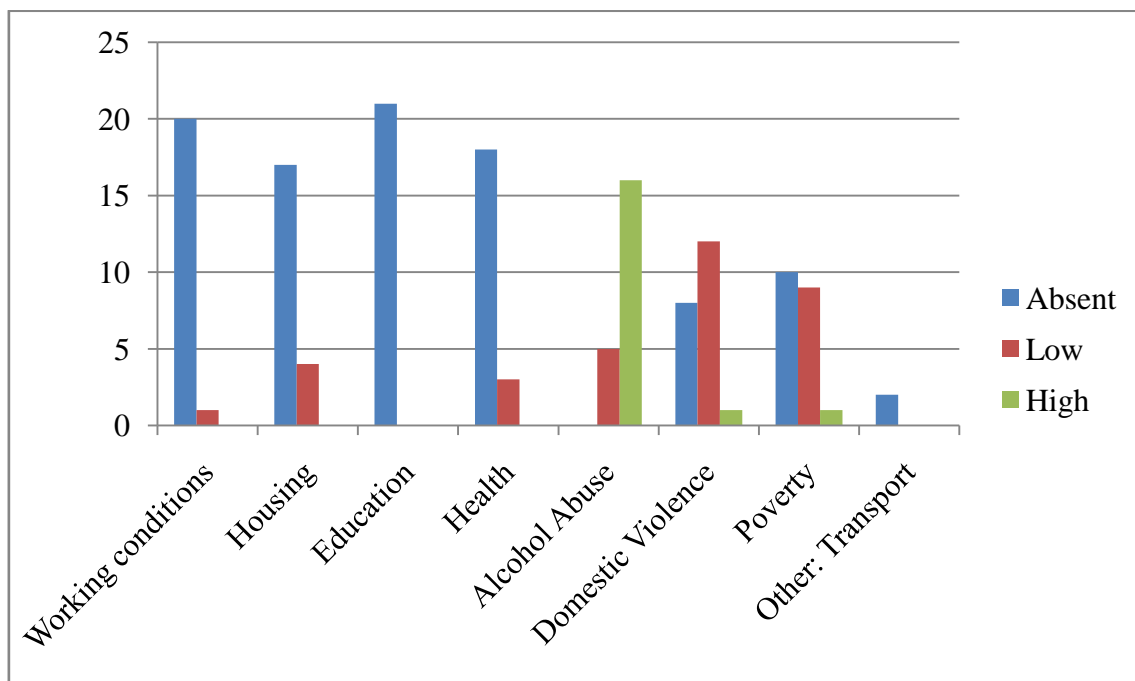


Figure 5.10: Difficulties that are prevalent in the farming community

* Participants could choose more than one focus area and were asked to rate each area.

n = 21

All except one (5%) of the participants (n = 21) said that they did not experience any problem with the working conditions on the farm. One participant indicated experiencing a low level of difficulty in the work place, thus it can be concluded that the working conditions experienced on Solms-Delta are of a good standard. According to Viljoen (2008:29-31), housing, poor health and a low level of education are still seen as major problems in farming communities in the Western Cape. However, participants in this study indicated that housing, health, and education issues were not perceived as significant areas of concern. As all the participants lived and/or worked on Solms-Delta wine estate it can be deduced that these issues have been addressed by the Wijn de Caab trust, as discussed in Chapter 1. The Trust is striving to fulfil this basic aim through providing financial assistance for accessing education on a primary, secondary and tertiary level; providing primary health care that is not covered by the state; improving quality of life; and assisting those in distress. The first objective of the Trust as

stated in the Deed of Trust is welfare and humanitarian considerations.² The focus is on community development for the poor and needy persons in the beneficiary community and anti-poverty initiatives, including: promotion of community based-projects relating to self-help, empowerment, capacity building and skills development. These aims are in line with those of the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997). Alcohol abuse (16 or 76%) was seen as the greatest challenge, followed closely by domestic violence (13 or 62%); still, 12 (57%) of the respondents saw this as a lower risk than alcoholism. There was an even split between those who perceived poverty as an issue and those who relegated it to below specific issues raised in the other focus areas, with one respondent not replying. One respondent highlighted transport and illicit drugs as significant challenges. These findings echo research conducted by London (2000:1409) which states that alcohol consumption amongst farm workers in the Western Cape is approximately twice that of their urban counterparts. London (2000:204) states that a high level of alcohol abuse and excessive consumption are associated with adverse health and social outcomes. This finding correlates with Falletisch (2008:74) who states that there is a correlation between habitual drinking and social violence on farms which was evident in the view of most of the participants.

5.3.5.1 Theme 1: Difficulties experienced in the farm community

The participants were asked to look at the above-mentioned focus areas, namely; working conditions, housing, education, health, alcohol abuse, domestic violence, poverty or other and to explain in which areas they experienced the most difficulties and to share their experiences.

The socio-economic circumstances of farm workers were discussed in Chapter 3. These experiences will now be presented, discussed and analysed according to the relevant sub-themes and categories displayed in Table 5.1. After each table the excerpts will be analysed and interpreted against a relevant literature control.

² Deed of Trust between Wijn de Caab Trust and Trustees, 2005:5

Theme 1 – Sub-theme A: Substance abuse, Category 1: Alcohol

The following table contains excerpts of participants' responses related to 'alcohol abuse'.

Table 5.2: Areas of most serious difficulties experienced by the farming community – Substance abuse: Alcohol

Theme 1: Social difficulties experienced by the farming community		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Substance abuse	Alcohol	<p><i>The dop system still has consequences and many people are still drinking</i> <i>“Die dopstelsel dra nog gevolge en baie mense drink nogsteeds”</i></p> <p><i>Whenever there is a problem you hear that liquor was involved</i> <i>“Altyd as daar ‘n probleem is hoor jy dat drank betrokke was.”</i></p> <p><i>Alcohol has a very negative impact on children, sometimes there's violence and it causes children to be neglected</i> <i>“Alkohol beïnvloed die kinders se lewens baie negatief, daar is somtyds geweld wat gebeur en dit veroorsaak dat kinders word verwaarloos.”</i></p>

* Participants could choose more than one difficulty they experienced

n = 21

All the participants in this study indicated that they experienced the most difficulty in their community as due to alcohol abuse. The difficulty ranged from (“***The dop system still has consequences and many people are still drinking***”) to (“***Whenever there is a problem you hear that liquor was involved***”). These findings correlate with research conducted by Falletisch (2008:2) that indicated that, despite the official regulation declaring the illegality of the dop system in the later part of the twentieth century, society is not nearer to erasing the legacy forty years after the abolishment of the system, to bear out London's (2000:203) finding that farm workers in the Western Cape are ranked higher as users of alcohol relative to other occupational categories.

Theme 1 – Sub-theme A: Substance abuse, Category 2: Drugs

The second category under the sub-theme ‘substance abuse’ is drugs and is presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Areas of most serious difficulties experienced by the farming community - Substance abuse: Drugs

Theme 1: Social difficulties experienced by the farming community		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Substance abuse	Drugs	<p><i>Because I see how people misuse drugs it influence their lives badly, they lose their jobs and they have the wrong sorts of friends.</i></p> <p><i>“Want ek sien hoe mense dwelems gebruik en dit beïnvloed hulle lewens sleg, hulle verloor hulle werke en hulle het die verkeerde vriende.”</i></p> <p><i>Drugs have a bad effect on their work and their children</i></p> <p><i>“Dwelms beïnvloed hulle werk en kinders baie sleg.”</i></p>

* Participants could choose more than one difficulty that they experienced

n = 21

All the participants in this study indicated that they experienced the greatest difficulty in their community as due to alcohol and drug abuse. The difficulties ranged from (“... ***they lose their jobs***”) to (“***Drugs have a bad effect on their work and children***”). This correlates with research(<http://www.livestrong.com/article/254271-negative-effects-from-drug-abuse/#ixzz22YyqXsZe>) that states: “The negative effects from drug abuse can have immediate and long-term consequences. Careers have been ruined and families have been devastated because of drug abuse”. From the above narratives it is evident that drug use can have serious consequences and is prevalent in some farming communities in the Western Cape.

5.3.6 Social development

5.3.6.1: Theme 2: Involvement of the participants in capacity-building initiatives

The participants were asked which capacity-building initiatives they had been involved with and what their involvement entailed. These initiatives included holistic development opportunities for school-going children such as the crèche and the Anna Foundation, music education in the form of the Music van de Caab Project which includes different bands and a choir, formal training in line with the job of the participants, as well as projects initiated by

the farm workers themselves such as the formation of a rugby team, the Afrikaanse Taal en Kultuur Vereniging programme, a netball team and a drum majorettes group. According to Nieman (2002:12), the worldwide move to the social development approach for addressing social ills has been accepted and incorporated as official South African government policy, as set out in the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997). The White Paper for Social Welfare defines capacity building as “skills development in a wide range of areas such as specialist knowledge and skills, popular education and training and social competency promotion” (Republic of South Africa. Department of Welfare, 1997:6). In this section, themes, categories and excerpts from the interviews will be presented, analysed and interpreted with relevant literature control.

**Theme 2 – Sub-theme A: Holistic development opportunities for school going children,
Category 1: Early childhood development (ECD)**

In the following table, narratives related to early childhood development are presented.

Table 5.4: Involvement in capacity-building initiatives – Holistic development opportunities for school-going children: Early childhood development

Theme 2: Involvement of the participants in capacity-building initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Holistic development opportunities for school-going children	Early childhood development (ECD)	<p><i>I started with the playgroups and now I have my own group for 2 to 3 year olds</i> <i>“Ek het by die speelgroepie begin en nou het ek my eie klas vir 2- tot 3-jariges.”</i></p> <p><i>I am a teacher at Klein Handjies. I attended formal classes.</i> <i>“Ek is ‘n onderwyser by Klein Handjies. Ek het formele kursusse bygewoon”</i></p> <p><i>I was on the committee at the crèche.</i> <i>“Ek was op die komitee by die crèche”</i></p>

* Participants could choose more than one capacity-building initiative

n = 21

The participants’ responses varied from being a teacher (“***I am a teacher...***”) to being a committee member who took decisions about the crèche (“***I was on the committee at the crèche***”). Twelve (57%) of the participants said they had either changed direction or assisted with early childhood and development programmes at Solms-Delta. Midgley (1995:25) defines social development as “...a process of planned social change designed to promote the

well-being of the population as a whole in conjunction with a dynamic process of economic development”. The process requires an interdisciplinary focus and conveys a positive and optimistic view of improvement or progress. This definition implies that interventions must take place by means of the implementation of plans and strategies with an end goal in mind which, in this instance, was better education for children of farm workers.

Theme 2 – Sub-theme B: Music education, Category 1: Music van de Caab project (FME)

In Table 5.5 narratives related to involvement in music education are presented.

Table 5.5: Involvement in capacity-building initiatives – Music: Music van de Caab project (FME)

Theme 2: Involvement of the participants in capacity-building initiatives		
Sub-theme B	Category 1	Narratives
Music education	Music van de Caab project (FME)	<p><i>A member of the choir and I play guitar, my whole family is part of this project.</i> <i>“’n Lid van die koor en ek speel kitaar, my hele familie is deel van hierdie projek.”</i></p> <p><i>I am a ‘sound engineer’ and I play in the band. I attended formal courses.</i> <i>“Ek is ‘n sound engineer en ek speel in die band. Ek het formele kursusse bygewoon.”</i></p> <p><i>I am a singer in the choir and I play the guitar</i> <i>“Ek is ‘n singer in die koor en ek speel die kitaar.”</i></p>

* Participants could choose more than one capacity-building initiative

n = 21

Nine (43%) of the participants said that they were in some way involved in The Music van de Caab project which involves musical education, recreation and an opportunity to earn an income from performances. While some have pursued singing (*“I am a singer in the choir”*) others have learned to play an instrument and play in a band (*“I play in the band”*). This is a true example of a project that has added economic development as outlined in Midgley’s (1995:25) definition of social development. It has provided the participants with an opportunity to derive an income from performances to previously disadvantaged communities in the Dwars River Valley in the Western Cape.

Theme 2 – Sub-theme C: Formal training, Category 1: In the line of work

The following table presents narratives related to formal training in line with the participant's work.

Table 5.6: Involvement in capacity-building initiatives – Formal Training: In the line of work

Theme 2: Involvement of the participants in capacity-building initiatives		
Sub-theme C	Category 1	Narratives
Formal training	In the line of work	<p><i>I did many formal classes where everything was professionally presented and I received a certificate.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek het baie formele lesse gedoen alles was professioneel aangebied en ek het sertifikate ontvang.”</i></p> <p><i>I got a tractor certificate.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek het ‘n trekker sertifikaat gevang”</i></p>

* Participants could choose more than one capacity building initiative.

n = 21

Fifteen (71%) of the participants said that they had had some kind of formal training to improve their skills and knowledge in their current job on Solms-Delta wine estate. Some stated that they had attended formal classes (“***I did many formal classes where everything was professionally presented***”) while others explained that they received a certificate at the end of the formal training (“***I got a tractor certificate***”). Nieman (2000:61) states that training and acquiring skills promotes social development.

Theme 2 – Sub-theme D: Farm workers’ own initiated projects, Category 1: Rugby, ATKV, Netball, Drum majorettes

The following table presents narratives of participants related to projects initiated by the farm workers that promote capacity building.

Table 5.7: Involvement in capacity-building initiatives – Projects initiated by farm workers themselves: Rugby, Afrikaanse Taal en Kultuur Vereniging, Netball, Drum majorettes

Theme 2: Involvement of the participants in capacity-building initiatives		
Sub-theme D	Category 1	Narratives
Projects initiated by farm workers themselves	Rugby, Afrikaanse Taal en Kultuur Vereniging, Netball, Drum majorettes	<p><i>I am involved with the ATKV – we involve young people, we want to teach them what happens when you abuse alcohol and we take them on excursions. There are seven of us on the farm and we meet once a month</i></p> <p><i>“Ek is by die ATKV betrokke – ons betrek die jong mense, ons wil hulle leer wat gebeur as hulle alkohol misbruik en vat vir hulle op uitstappies. Ons is sewe vrouens op die plaas en kom een keer ‘n maand bymekaar.”</i></p> <p><i>At the ATKV I am on the committee, we are also a support group.</i></p> <p><i>“...By die ATKV is ek op die komitee, ons is ook ‘n ondersteuningsgroep.”</i></p> <p><i>A colleague and I started the netball team—we are still busy arranging it but we have already played a match.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek en ‘n kollega het die netbal span gestig – ons is nog besig om te reël maar ons het ‘n wedstryd gespeel.”</i></p> <p><i>I am a ‘fitness instructor’ for our rugby team.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek is ‘n fitness instructor vir ons rugby span”</i></p>

* Participants could choose more than one capacity-building initiative

n = 21

Six (29%) of the participants said they have started their own initiatives on Solms-Delta wine estate to provide education and recreation to community members. These initiatives range from starting a rugby team (“*I am a fitness instructor for our rugby team*”) to being involved in a group that aims to educate the youth and provide recreation within the community (“*I am involved with the ATKV – we involve young people, we want to teach them what happens when you abuse alcohol and we take them on excursions*”). These initiatives reflect how the community members are taking control of the social situation

within their own community. These findings correspond with Midgley and Conley (2010:171) who refer to community capacity enhancement, community building and asset building as popular terms to describe the process of communities learning to address local problems themselves.

5.3.6.2: Theme 3: Training

In this section, the participants were asked to describe the kind of training they received.

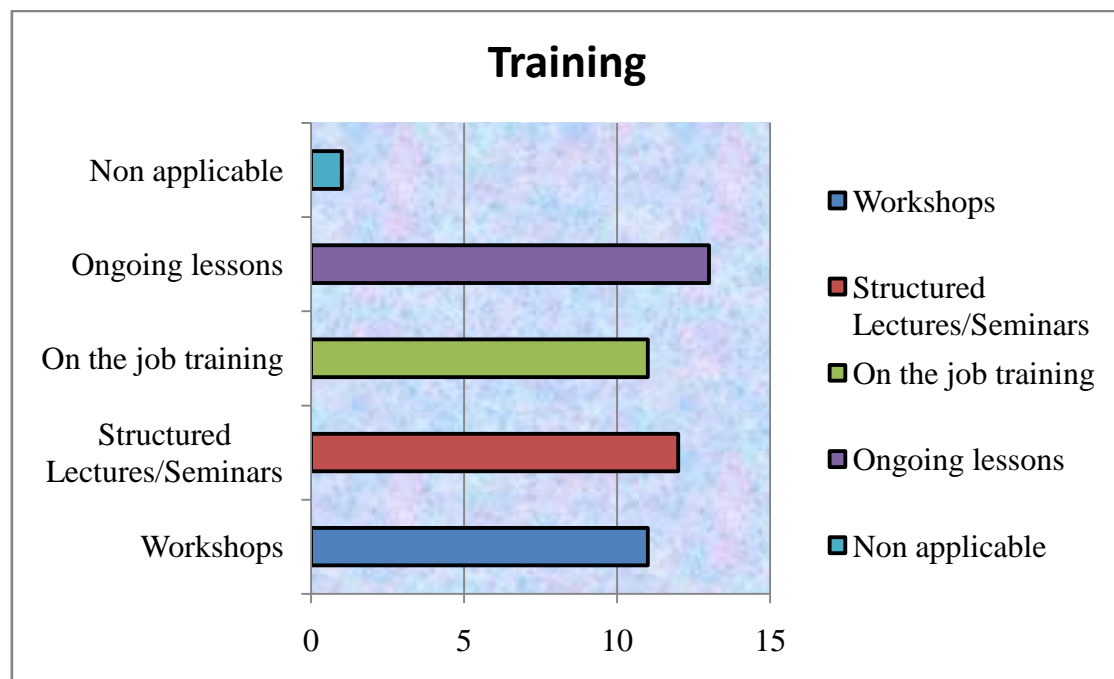


Figure 5.11: Training received as a member of the initiative

* Participants could choose more than one capacity-building initiative.

n = 21

In Figure 5.11, the different training methods used to build capacity are indicated. It is evident that a variety of training methods were crucial to the learning that took place. The figure indicates that the majority – thirteen participants (27%) – received ongoing lessons, while twelve attended structured lectures (25%), eleven of the participants (23%) received on-the-job training and ongoing lessons and only one said none of these were applicable.

5.3.6.3: Theme 4: Outcomes of training initiatives

Theme 4 – Sub-theme A: Outcomes of training initiatives, Category 1: To increase knowledge

The following table presents the participants' responses when they were asked to share how they experienced the outcome of the training initiatives that they were involved in.

Table 5.8: Achievements through training initiatives – Outcomes of training initiatives: To increase knowledge

Theme 4: Outcomes of training initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Outcomes of training initiatives	To increase knowledge	<p><i>It gives me more 'knowledge' and shows me the way forward. I would not have been where I am today if it wasn't for the training and the programme.</i></p> <p><i>"Dit gee vir my meer knowledge en wys vir my die pad vorentoe. Ek sou nie vandag gewees waar ek nou is nie sonder die opleiding en programme."</i></p> <p><i>To expand your knowledge. To let you do your work.</i></p> <p><i>"Om jou kennis uit te brei. Om jou werk te kan doen."</i></p> <p><i>If you don't get training you really won't know what's going on. It has taught me a lot.</i></p> <p><i>"As jy nie opleiding kry nie sal jy nie regtig weet wat aangaan nie. Dit het my baie geleer."</i></p>

* Participants could choose more than one capacity-building initiative.

n = 21

In the table, some of the outcomes of the training programmes/initiatives are described by the participants. All of the participants said that they had increased their knowledge and learned new skills. One of the participants explained "*If you don't get training you really won't know what's going on. It has taught me a lot*". Due to the general lack of education and opportunities available to farm workers they are limited in terms of the job market unless they are able to acquire new knowledge and skills. This is substantiated by Viljoen (2008:31), who states that farm labourers are considered to have the lowest level of education in South Africa and are regarded as an 'unschooled' occupation group.

Theme 4 – Sub-theme A: Outcomes of training initiatives, Category 2: To provide recreation

In the following table, the participants' responses to being asked to share how they experienced the outcome of the training initiatives that they were involved in are presented.

Table 5.9: Achievements through training initiatives – Outcomes of training initiatives: To provide recreation

Theme 4: Outcomes of training initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Outcomes of training initiatives	To provide recreation	<p><i>I would say it's on your behalf. You get the opportunity to walk into other jobs as well. It's for my relaxation.</i></p> <p><i>"Ek sal sê dis vir jou onthalwe. Jy kry die geleentheid om by ander werke ook in te stap. Dit is vir my ontspanning."</i></p> <p><i>Through the training I actually got a lot of relaxation. I now have a better programme for my lifestyle.</i></p> <p><i>"...Deur die opleiding het ek nogals ontspanning ook gekry. Ek het 'n beter program in my leefstyl."</i></p>

* Participants could choose more than one capacity-building initiative.

n = 21

Twelve (57%) of the participants stated that they, through their involvement in the various training initiatives, experienced a higher level of relaxation (***"Through the training I actually got a lot of relaxation. I now have a better programme for my lifestyle"***).

This echoes Viljoen's (2008:33) research findings which highlight the importance of access to recreational activities in farming communities, According to Viljoen (2008:33), recreational activities make a positive contribution to the lives of farm labourers.

5.3.7 Empowerment

According to Nieman (2002:18), empowerment has become part of the vocabulary of social development and can be considered a goal as well as a result of development efforts. Nieman (2002:18) states that the way in which empowerment is seen to benefit individuals, groups and communities makes it a powerful mechanism in development practices. Nieman (2008:23) refers to different levels of empowerment as cited in Kvinnoforum (2001:20). The participants were asked to explain how their ability at an individual level has changed in the

following areas: self-esteem, assertiveness, independence and decision making since their involvement in one or other capacity-building initiative.

5.3.7.1: Theme 5: Changes on an individual level after involvement in the programme or training

All of the participants noted a change in themselves since participating in capacity building initiatives.

Under Theme 5, Sub-theme self-esteem: self-image, which includes confidence, pride and communication, the categories were identified as the areas where change occurred on an individual level.

b) These changes are presented in Table 5.10.

Participants were asked to explain how their self-image changed, if it had changed.

Table 5.10: Changes in individual abilities – Self-esteem: Self-image

Theme 5: Individual		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Self-esteem	Self-image	<p><i>Definitely yes. In my previous work I didn't worry about my self-image, it was tough times.</i></p> <p><i>"Beslis baie. In my werk voorheen het ek nie geworry oor my selfbeeld nie, dit was net 'n gesukkelry."</i></p> <p><i>Yes. Things have improved a lot, I feel much happier with myself.</i></p> <p><i>"Ja, dit het baie verbeter, ek voel baie gelukkig met myself nou."</i></p> <p><i>Yes, I communicate now much more with other people and I feel good about myself.</i></p> <p><i>"Ja, ek kommunikeer nou met ander mense en ek voel goed oor myself."</i></p>

n = 21

Participants' explanations varied from "***In my previous work I did not worry about my self-image, it was tough times***" to "... ***I can communicate now much more with other people and I feel good about myself***". Participation in capacity-building initiatives has changed participants, enabling them to have conversations with other people and to feel good about themselves. In other words, power has been generated from within and has given the individuals the ability to increase self-esteem (Nieman 2008:23).

Theme 5 – Sub-theme A: Self-esteem, Category 2: Confidence

Participants who indicated that their confidence had increased due to their participation in one or more capacity-building programmes were asked to explain in what way their self-confidence had improved. Table 5.11 presents the findings.

Table 5.11: Changes in individual abilities – Self-esteem: Confidence

Theme 5: Individual		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Self-esteem	Confidence	<p><i>Yes, things have changed a lot, I was shy but now I have self-confidence. I will stand in front of a thousand people and do the sound.</i> <i>“Ja, dit het baie verander, ek was skaam maar nou het ek confidence, ek sal voor ‘n duisend mense staan en die sound doen.”</i></p> <p><i>I have more self-confidence and I can now talk about things that I couldn’t before.</i> <i>“Ek het meer selfvertroue en ek kan nou oor baie dinge gesels wat ek nie voorheen geweet het nie.”</i></p> <p><i>It has changed a bit, I have more self-confidence</i> <i>“Dit het ‘n bietjie verander, ek het meer selfvertroue in my.”</i></p> <p><i>It has changed a lot, I feel more sure of myself.</i> <i>“Dit het baie verander, ek voel meer seker oor myself.”</i></p>

n = 21

The participants who expressed increased confidence mainly attributed this self-confidence to increased knowledge (“*Yes, things have changed a lot, I was shy but now I have-self confidence. I will stand in front of a thousand people and do the sound.*”). Another participant explained, “*I have more self-confidence and I can now talk about things that I couldn’t before*”. This is a further example of how power from within has been developed and has increased self-esteem (Nieman, 2008:23).

Theme 5 – Sub-theme A: Self-esteem, Category 3: Pride

Feelings of pride comprised another outcome of capacity-building initiatives on an individual level. These examples are presented in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: Changes in individual abilities – Self-esteem: Pride

Theme 5: Individual		
Sub-theme A	Category 3	Narratives
Self-esteem	Pride	<p><i>Absolutely, I feel good about myself and people look up to me.</i> <i>“Absoluut, ek voel goed oor myself en mense kyk op na my.”</i></p> <p><i>I think so, I am proud of myself.</i> <i>“Ek dink so, ek is trots op myself” .</i></p> <p><i>I have pride, I am very observant and I pick up things easily.</i> <i>“Ek is trots, ek is baie oplettend en ek vang makliker dinge.”</i></p>

n = 21

Participants noted an increase in self-pride (“...***I am proud of myself***”). It is through this sense of pride that self-image has been improved.

Theme 5 – Sub-theme A: Self-esteem, Category 4: Communication

Many of the participants stated that they experienced an increase in self-esteem due to gaining better communication skills since being involved in capacity-building initiatives. These explanations are presented in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Changes in individual abilities – Self-esteem: Communication

Theme 5: Individual		
Sub-theme A	Category 4	Narratives
Self-esteem	Communication	<p><i>I have more self-confidence and I can talk about things I couldn't before.</i> <i>“Ek het meer selfvertroue en ek kan nou oor baie dinge gesels wat ek nie voorheen geweet het nie.”</i></p> <p><i>Yes, I now communicate with other people and I feel good about myself.</i> <i>“Ja, ek kommunikeer nou met ander mense en ek voel goed oor myself.”</i></p> <p><i>My self-image has improved and I can now speak openly to other people.</i> <i>“My selfbeeld het baie verander ek kan nou openlik met mense praat. “</i></p>

n = 21

Table 5.13 shows that participants ascribe their ability to communicate with others to the initiatives in which they are involved (“*Yes, I now communicate with other people and I feel good about myself*”). Their ability to communicate has led to a positive self-image. Power from within has thus been an outcome of capacity-building programmes on an individual level (Nieman, 2008:23).

Theme 5 – Sub-theme B: Independence, Category 1: Independence

The participants were asked if they felt more independent since being involved in capacity-building initiatives. The responses of some the participants are presented in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Changes in individual abilities – Independence: Independence

Theme 5: Individual		
Sub-theme B	Category 1	Narratives
Independence	Independence	<p><i>“I am more independent; I can run the museum on my own. I can work and do things on my own because of my training.”</i></p> <p><i>Yes, to work together and I am more independent.</i></p> <p><i>“Ja om saam te werk is ek baie meer onafhanklik.”</i></p> <p><i>I am very independent after my training and I feel I am capable of meeting the needs of my own group.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek is baie onafhanklik na my training voel ek dat ek is in staat om my eie groepe se behoeftes na te kom.”</i></p> <p><i>·</i></p> <p><i>I can work on my own, I was always like that</i></p> <p><i>· “Ek kan op my eie werk, ek was altyd so.”</i></p>

n = 21

The majority of the participants (15 or 71%) noted that they had become more independent since being involved in capacity building initiatives (“*I am more independent, I can run the museum on my own. I can work and do things on my own because of my training*”) while six (29%) said they had always been independent (“*I can work on my own, I was always like that*”).

Theme 5 – Sub-theme C: Decision-making, Category 1: Confidence

Excerpts from responses by participants who expressed improvement in their ability to make decisions since being involved in capacity-building initiatives are presented in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Changes in individual abilities – Decision making: Confidence

Theme 5: Individual		
Sub-theme C	Category 1	Narratives
Decision making	Confidence	<p><i>I am better with taking decisions because I have self confidence and I am no longer afraid to do that.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek is beter met besluitneming want ek het meer selfvertroue en is nie bang vir dit nie”</i></p> <p><i>I am good at decision taking, I am proud that I now know what to do, and can now take decisions without being asked to do so. My manager gives me lots of praise.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek is goed met besluitneming, ek is trots dat ek weet wat om te doen en nou besluite kan neem sonder om te vra te word. My bestuurder gee my baie praise.”</i></p> <p><i>I am now good at making decisions.</i></p>

n = 21

Many of the participants said that, due to increased confidence, they are now able to make decisions. Explanations included: *“I am better with taking decisions because I have self-confidence and I am no longer afraid to do that and I am good at decision taking, I am proud that I now know what to do”*. This is in line with Nieman’s (2008:23) research which explains that power from within gives individuals the ability to make decisions and take control of their life situation, rights and awareness.

Theme 5 – Sub-theme C: Decision making, Category 2: Pride

When participants were describing how their decision-making skills had increased, many attributed this to the pride they feel. Excerpts from responses are provided in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Changes in individual abilities – Decision making: Pride

Theme 5: Individual		
Sub-theme C	Category 2	Narratives
Decision making	Pride	<p><i>I am good at decision taking, I am proud that I now know what to do, and can now take decisions without being asked to do so. My manager gives me lots of praise.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek is goed met besluitneming, ek is trots dat ek weet wat om te doen en nou besluite kan neem sonder om te vra te word. My bestuurder gee my baie praise.”</i></p> <p><i>I can take my own decisions because I know my work I am proud.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek kan my eie besluit neem, want ek ken my werk ek is trots.”</i></p>

n = 21

An increased sense of pride supported the ability to now make decisions in their own lives and in their work for many of the participant. (***“I am good at decision-taking, I am proud that I now know what to do, and can now take decisions without being asked to do so”***).

Theme 5 – Sub-theme C: Decision making, Category 3: Leadership

Other participants said that they were leaders in the community and that the capacity-building initiatives in which they were involved had helped them to make decisions. Excerpts from their responses are presented in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Changes in individual abilities – Decision making: Leadership

Theme 5: Individual		
Sub-theme C	Category 3	Narratives
Decision making	Leadership	<p><i>Yes, it has changed, I am the chairperson of the choir and the ATKV and I must be able to take decisions.</i></p> <p><i>“Ja, dit het verander, ek is die chairperson van die koor en die ATKV en ek moet besluite kan neem.”</i></p> <p><i>Become much stronger because I must give lessons, I must decide by myself what will be the easiest and most effective way to teach.</i></p> <p><i>“Baie sterker geword omdat ek moet lesse aanbied, ek moet self besluit wat sal die maklikste en beste manier vir klasgee sal wees.”</i></p>

n = 21

Participants who have positions of leadership in the community and in the work place expressed that their ability to make decisions has increased due to training and capacity-building initiatives. An example of this is (“*Yes, it has changed, I am the chairperson of the choir and the ATKV and I must be able to take decisions*”). This correlates with Homan’s (2004:88) view that leadership is an important goal in empowerment initiatives.

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5.3.7.2: Theme 6: Group level

(i) Respect gained at group level as a result of participation in the programme or training

The participants were asked what kind of respect they felt as a group of people working in the same place as a result of participating in capacity-building initiatives. All of the participants indicated that they felt they had gained respect by participating in training and other capacity-building initiatives.

Theme 6 – Sub-theme A: Respect, Category 1: Recognition

Many of the participants expressed that they felt they gained respect due to the recognition they received. These findings are presented in Table 5.18.

**Table 5.18: Respect gained through participation in the empowerment initiatives –
Respect: Recognition**

Theme 6: Respect at group level		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Respect	Recognition	<p><i>Yes, the people pay us compliments about the work we do and this says they respect us.</i> <i>“Ja die mense gee ons komplimente oor die werk wat ons doen en dit sê hulle respekteer ons.”</i></p> <p><i>We definitely have respect and we respect each other and understand each other as a group. Everyone respects what we are doing on the farm, it’s something unique and of use.</i> <i>“Ons het definitief respek en ons respekteer mekaar en verstaan mekaar as ‘n groep. Almal respekteer wat ons doen, dis uniek en iets nuut op die plaas.”</i></p> <p><i>We respect each other and understand each other as a group. The people see that we are in a high position because we work with visitors to the farm and we have been trained for that. We are the face of the farm.</i> <i>“Ons het respek vir mekaar en vir die gemeenskap. Die mense sien ons in ‘n hoog posisie want ons werk met die besoekers op die plaas en ons is opgelei daarvoor. Ons is die gesig van die plaas.”</i></p> <p><i>I feel the community respects us for what we do because they know their children get a good education.</i> <i>“Ek voel die gemeenskap het respek vir wat ons doen omdat hulle weet ons gee vir hulle kinders goeie onderrig.”</i></p>

n = 21

All of the participants expressed that they felt a sense of group respect from other community members and that they have been recognised in the community for their participation in training and capacity-building initiatives. Explanations range from: *“Yes, **the people pay us compliments about the work we do and they say they respect us to I feel the community respects us for what we do because they know their children get a good education**”*. These narratives reflect Nieman’s take on empowerment at group level. According to Nieman (2008:23), empowerment at group level is illustrated by the way in which farm workers develop a collective sense of agency to act collectively, undertake activities and organise themselves into groups.

Theme 6 – Sub-theme A: Respect, Category 2: Role model

Further to receiving recognition, some of the participants felt that they are seen as role models and have thus gained respect. Some of these experiences are presented in Table 5.19.

**Table 5.19: Respect gained through participation in the empowerment initiatives –
Respect: Role models**

Theme 6: Respect at group level		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Respect	Role Models	<p><i>Absolutely, people look up to us because they see that we got it right. We are role-models for the community. Many farm workers say they want to be like us...</i></p> <p><i>“Absoluut, mense kyk baie op na ons want hulle kan sien ons het dit reggekry. Ons is rolmodelle in die gemeenskap. Baie plaaswerkers sê hulle wil soos ek wees.”</i></p> <p><i>They look up to us; we are getting better all the time.</i></p> <p><i>“Hulle kyk op na ons, ons raak al hoe beter.”</i></p> <p><i>Oh yes, they look up to us as a group. We get positive feedback.</i></p> <p><i>“Ja nogals, hulle kyk op na ons as ‘n groep. Ons kry positiewe terugvoering.”</i></p>

n = 21

The participants reported a positive association with gaining respect within the community for their involvement in the various capacity-building programmes. As seen in the above table these participants now view themselves as role models within the community. In this instance, empowerment at group level is illustrated by the way in which farm workers develop a collective sense of agency and act collectively (Nieman, 2008:23).

(ii) Ability to act independently as a group

The participants were asked if they felt within the group that they were able to organise themselves and act independently. The findings are presented in Figure 5.12.

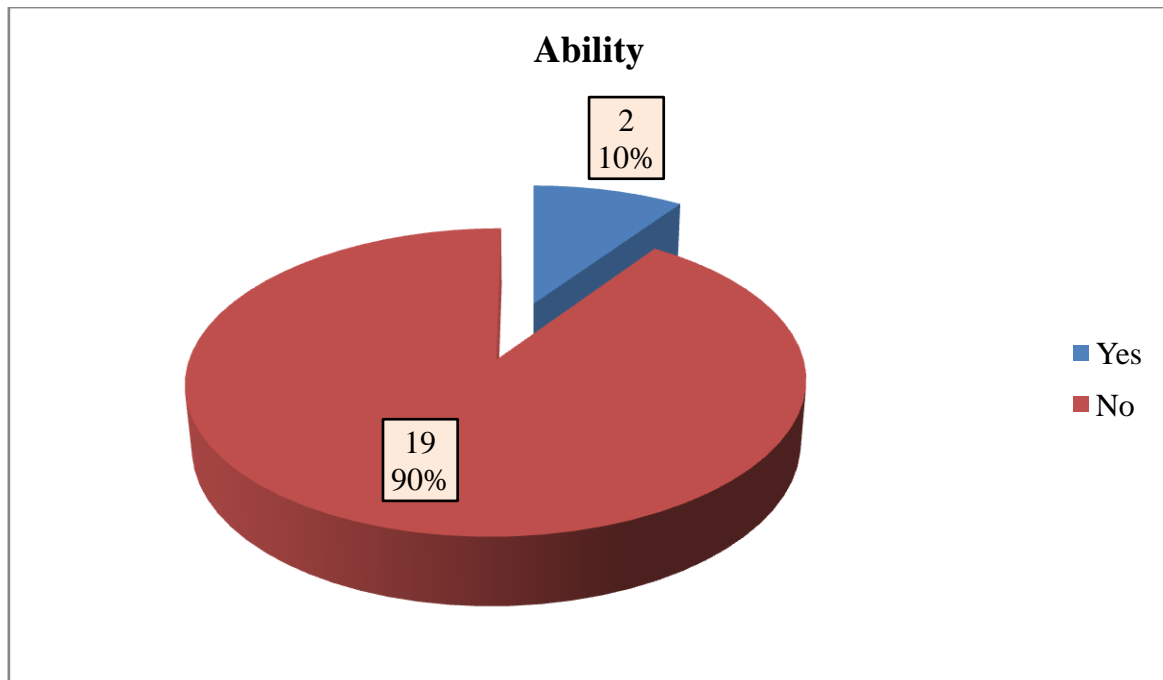


Figure 5.12: Ability to act independently as a group

n = 21

The overwhelming majority, (19 or 90%) of respondents felt that they could act independently as a result of the training initiatives in which they had participated. Empowerment at group level is illustrated in this instance by their ability to act collectively, undertake activities and organise themselves into groups (Nieman, 2008:23).

5.3.7.3: Theme 7: The ability of the community to express their needs and to make changes to practices and rules that will promote equality for farm workers

Theme 7 – Sub-theme A: Communication

The participants were asked about their ability as a community of people to express their needs and make changes to practices and rules that will promote equality for farm workers. All of the participants said that they do have the ability to make changes that will promote equality. According to participants, they all have channels through which they can address their needs and make changes within their work and home situation. Depending on the nature of the need, the various channels that were highlighted were open access to the farm's social worker, their manager, the human resource manager and the monthly community meeting that is held to address matters of concern. The participants' means of expressing their needs

and making changes are presented in Tables 5.20, 5.21, 5.22 and 5.23 with the literature control presented after Table 5.23.

Table 5.20: Community's ability to express needs and make changes – Communication: Social worker

Theme 7: Community involvement		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Communication	Social worker	<p><i>We go to the social worker with personal problems</i> <i>"Ons gaan na die maatskaplike werkster toe met persoonlike probleme."</i></p> <p><i>We go to our manager or to HR or to the social worker</i> <i>"Ons gaan na ons bestuurder toe of na HR toe of na die maatskaplike werkster toe."</i></p> <p><i>We go to the social worker if it's a personal problem or we can go to the monthly meetings to bring something to the attention of management.</i> <i>"Ons kan na die maatskaplike werkers toe gaan as die 'n persoonlike probleem is of ons kan na die maandelikse vergadering toe gaan om iets onder management se aandag te bring."</i></p>

n = 21

It is evident from Table 5.20 that participants will go to the social worker if difficulties are experienced on a personal level (***"We go to the social worker if it's a personal problem ..."***).

Table 5.21: Community's ability to express needs and make changes – Communication: Managers

Theme 7: Community involvement		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Communication	Managers	<p><i>There is a way to solve problems. We talk to our manager and she takes it to the other managers.</i></p> <p><i>“Daar is ‘n manier om probleme op te los. Ons praat met ons bestuurder en sy vat dit na die ander bestuurders toe.”</i></p> <p><i>I go to my manager, he is a good manager, and he always listens to me.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek kan gaan na my bestuurder, hy is ‘n goeie bestuurder, hy luister altyd vir my.”</i></p> <p><i>The people will talk to their managers if there are problems at work</i></p> <p><i>. “Die mense sal met hulle bestuurders praat as daar probleme is by die werk”</i></p>

n = 21

The above narratives show that participants will go to their managers if they experience difficulties in the work place (“***The people will talk to their managers if there are problems at work***”).

Table 5.22: Community's ability to express needs and make changes – Communication: HR worker

Theme 7: Community involvement		
Sub-theme A	Category 3	Narratives
Communication	HR Worker	<p><i>I can say yes, we can first go to our manager and if he or she does not take you seriously we can go to HR or the social worker, it depends if it's a work related problem or a personal problem.,</i></p> <p><i>“Ek sal sê ja, ons kan eers na ons manager toe gaan as hy of sy nie vir ons ernstig opneem kan ons HR of maatskaplike werker toe gaan, dit hang af of dit 'n werksprobleem of dit 'n persoonlike probleem is.”</i></p> <p><i>If there is a problem we can always talk to our manager or to HR, we always get a solution.</i></p> <p><i>“As daar 'n probleem is dan praat ons met ons manager of die HR werker, ons kry altyd 'n oplossing.”</i></p> <p><i>You go to the HR worker.</i></p> <p><i>“Jy kan gaan na die HR werker toe.”</i></p>

n = 21

From the above narratives it can be deduced that the participants often choose to go to the human resource worker if they experience a problem. (***“You can go to the HR worker”***).

Table 5.23: Community's ability to express needs and make changes – Communication: Monthly meetings

Theme 7: Community involvement		
Sub-theme A	Category 4	Narratives
Communication	Monthly meetings	<p><i>Every month we have a meeting with some of the managers and then we have a chance to talk about things that are a problem. Any person that stays or works on the farm can come to that meeting.</i></p> <p><i>“Elke maand het ons ‘n meeting met van die managers en ons kry die kans om oor dinge te praat wat ‘n probleem is. Enige persoon wat bly of werk op die plaas kan na hierdie meeting toe kom.”</i></p> <p><i>There are meetings every month for all the farm workers. If you have a problem you can mention it there and they will sort it out.</i></p> <p><i>“Daar is vergaderinge elke maand, vir al die plaaswerkers. As jy ‘n probleem het kan jy dit daar gaan noem en hulle sal probeer omdat uit te sort.”</i></p> <p><i>Definitely, nowadays our community has meetings once every month and we can solve our problems there, it's easier this way.</i></p> <p><i>“Definitief, deesdae ons gemeenskap het vergaderings een keer ‘n maand en ons kan daar probleme oplos, dis makliker so.”</i></p>

n = 21

Monthly meetings are another means of communication within the community (*“**Definitely, these days our community has meetings once every month and we can solve our problems there, it's easier this way**”.*)

According to Kvinnoforum (2001:20), levels of empowerment, as cited in Nieman (2008:23), transform at a societal or *community level*; empowerment results in changes affecting the lives of farm labourers at the political level and impacts cultural traditions. In this instance, empowerment at a community level lies in the farm workers' ability to influence change within their working and living environment. According to the participants, they all have channels through which they can address their needs and make changes within their work and home situation. Depending on the nature of the need, the various channels that were highlighted included open access to the farm's social worker, their manager, the human resource manager and a monthly community meeting held to address matters of concern.

Due to the participants' interaction with community member off-farm, there is greater self-determination beyond the farm/work realm, too.

5.3.8: The strengths perspective

Empowerment is concerned with being proactive as opposed to reactive through building capacity and utilising strengths. In this section, the focus shifts to how the strengths of the individuals involved in the capacity-building initiatives have been maximised.

5.3.8.1: Theme 8: Individual strengths identified and enhanced during participation in the programme

Participants were asked to explain where they felt they were assets to Solms-Delta wine Estate and if they felt that their talents had been recognised.

Theme 8 – Sub-theme A: Strengths, Category 1: Ability to work with people

Table 5.24 shows that the participants expressed their strengths as their ability to work with people.

Table 5.24: Individual talents identified and enhanced – Strengths: Ability to work with people

Theme 8: Individual talents recognised and enhanced through the initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Strengths	Ability to work with people	<p><i>Yes, they noticed me, I am a supervisor now and I have a talent with people. I am an example.</i></p> <p><i>“Ja hulle het my raakgesien ek is nou ‘n supervisor en ek het talent met mensewerk. Ek is ‘n voorbeeld.”</i></p> <p><i>I contribute to making the farm’s name known. I feel my talent for working with people is recognised as well as my talent in dance. You get famous with what we do. The training I got was really appropriate.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek maak die plaas se naam groot. Ek voel my talent om met mense te werk is erken en my talent met dans. Jy raak beroemd met wat ons doen. Die opleiding wat ek ontvang het wat toegepas.”</i></p> <p><i>Yes, I always hear that I am a good worker and the manager has noticed that my talent is working with other people.</i></p> <p><i>“Ja ek hoor altyd dat ek ‘n goeie werker is en die is raakgesien deur die manager dat ek weet hoe om met ander mense te werk.”</i></p>

n = 21

All of the participants expressed that they felt they were an asset to Solms-Delta Wine Estate. Some said that their ability for working with people had been recognised. (***“Yes, they noticed me, I am a supervisor now and I have a talent with people. I am an example”***). The above responses are examples of how the strengths perspective has been used to aid capacity building. The strengths perspective in social work practice emphasises the strengths of the client system and the resources within the client’s natural environment (Johnson & Yanca, 2004:431). The strengths perspective is a positive ‘can do approach’ that builds a solid foundation for growth and change (Johnson & Yanca, 2004:130).

Theme 8 – Sub-theme A: Strengths, Category 2: Commitment

Responses by participants who said that their commitment to what they do is a strength that has been recognised, are presented in Table 5.25.

Table 5.25: Individual talents identified and enhanced – Strengths: Commitment

Theme 8: Individual talents recognized and enhanced through the initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Strengths	Commitment	<p><i>I put everything into it and I try to give 100% to make the client happy. I wish to represent the image of the farm 100%, I feel my talent is recognised and I sell the most wine of all the staff and I got a prize for it.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek sit alles in ek probeer 100% gee en die kliënt gelukkig te hou. Ek wil die plaas se beeld 100% uitdra, ek voel my talent is erken ek verkoop die meeste wyn van al die staf en het ‘n prys daarvoor gekry.”</i></p> <p><i>I am, I have values, I plough back into the community and I feel that my talent has been recognised in the choir, in the crèche and also in the drum majorettes which I started.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek is, ek het waardes, ek ploeg terug in die gemeenskap en voel my talent is raakgesien in die koor, in die crèche en veral in die trompoppies wat ek self begin het.”</i></p>

n = 21

“I put everything into it and I try to give 100% to make the client happy. I wish to represent the image of the farm 100%, I feel my talent is recognised”. This response from one participant’s experience shows that this ‘can do approach’ builds a solid foundation for growth and change (Johnson & Yanca, 2004:130). According to Saleebey (2002:1), the

formula is simple: mobilise the clients' strengths (talents, knowledge, capacities, resources) in the service of achieving their goals and visions and clients will have a better quality of life. In this study, the individual talents recognised and enhanced through the empowerment initiatives were an ability to work with people, the commitment felt towards jobs and the ability gained to use new knowledge to be an asset within the community. These strengths show that talent, knowledge, capacities and resources have been mobilised, as suggested by Saleebey (2002:1).

5.3.9 Community work

Rothman (1968) has published a widely cited typology that recognises the three distinctive types or models for community work intervention discussed in this section. While model A, Locality Development, is the model of community work treated in this study, it is important to take note of the other models of community work intervention to delineate the levels of capacity building that are available. In many instances, the models of community work intervention change during the course of the intervention process or at a certain point in a project as capacity develops in the target group. The phases in intervention, namely assessment, identification of needs and problems, representation by the community, planning, implementation and evaluation will be summarised in the section.

5.3.9.1: Theme 9: Assessment

The participants were asked if they knew why the programme/initiative that they were involved with was started. The ultimate aim of the *assessment* phase is to compile a profile of the community that provides a complete picture of who and what the community consists of and should thus supply a point of departure for the consecutive phases in the process. The situation analysis is important in all three of Rothman's (1968) models.

Theme 9 – Sub-theme A: Needs

The majority (17 or 81%) of the participants said that the various initiatives were initiated because of a need within the community. The need for child care and education, the need for recreation and the need to improve skills in line with work were the categories identified and are discussed in this section.

Table 5.26: Reasons for initiatives – Needs: Need for child care and education

Theme 9: Reasons for the initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Needs	Need child care and education	<p><i>Crèche – We had some problems in the beginning with caregivers for the children. We went to the social worker and so the crèche began...</i></p> <p><i>“Creche - Ons het in die begin bietjie gesukkel met oppassers vir die kinders. Ons het na die maatskaplike werker toegegaan en so het die creche begin”</i></p> <p><i>Crèche – because at that time the parents had nobody to look after the children.</i></p> <p><i>“Crèche – omdat daai tyd het die ouers niemand gehad om na hulle kinders te kyk.”</i></p> <p><i>Anna Foundation –to help the children with their studies so that they can do better.</i></p> <p><i>“Anna Foundation – om die kinders te help met akademie sodat hulle beter kan doen.”</i></p>

n = 21

The needs identified by the participants for community included the need for child care (“*Crèche – We had some problems in the beginning with caregivers for the children...*”) and the need for assistance with the farm children’s education (“*Anna Foundation – to help the children with their studies so that they can do better*”). The findings correspond with Cohen’s view (1978:227), as cited in Lombard (1992:253), that the definition of the problem is the first and decisive task of the process, a problem or need is only really identified when it has been demarcated and defined clearly.

Table 5.27: Reasons for initiatives – Needs: Need for recreation in the community

Theme 9: Reasons for the initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Needs	Need for recreation in the community	<p><i>Music, it was relaxation for us and everyone had the chance to be part of it.</i></p> <p><i>Musiek – Dit was virontspanningen almal het die geleentheid om deel te wees.”</i></p> <p><i>Drum majorettes – there is a band especially for the boys, the big (ladies) teams were involved with the choir but there was nothing for the small girls in the 8 – 14 year age group.</i></p> <p><i>“Trompoppies – Daar is ‘n band veral vir die seuns, die groot spanne is by die koor betrokke maar daar was niks vir die klein meisies van 8 tot 14 jaar ouderdomsgroep.”</i></p>

n = 21

The need for recreation and relaxation was another area highlighted by the participants (“... *there was nothing for the small girls in the 8 – 14 year age group*”). Many of the participants emphasised how the music programme has been a wonderful opportunity for group participation and relaxation. (“*Music, it was relaxation for us and everyone had the chance to be part of it*”).

Table 5.28: Reasons for initiatives – Needs: Need to improve skills in line with work

Theme 9: Reasons for the initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 3	Narratives
Needs	Need to improve skills and knowledge in line with work	<p><i>The reason why the course was offered was to improve my knowledge, allow me to do my work better and to be a better person in the workplace.</i></p> <p><i>“Die rede omdat die kurses aangebied was om my kennis te versterk en laat my beter my werk doen en ‘n beter mens in my werkplek”.</i></p> <p><i>“Formal training programmes – Yes to gain skills.”</i></p> <p><i>Tractor training - Yes, it was because we did not know everything about the tractor.</i></p> <p><i>“Tractor training – Ja dit was omdat ons nie alles van die trekker af geweet het nie.”</i></p>

n = 21

It became clear from the interviews with the participants that the need for the various interventions were linked to the direct needs experienced by the community members themselves. The need to gain skills and knowledge was emphasised by many of the participants. (**The reason why the course was offered was to improve my knowledge, allow me to do my work better and to be a better person in the workplace**). Johnson (1983:9), as cited in Lombard (1992:55), points out that, by taking the felt needs into consideration, the community work practice complies with the basic principle of social work, namely to start where the client finds himself. Thus both the felt need and the real needs can motivate a community into action. This finding corresponds with this statement by Johnson.

5.3.9.2: Theme 10: The involvement of the farm workers in identifying the needs, problems or assets in the community that necessitated the implementation of the programmes

The participants were asked how they were involved in identifying the needs or problems in the community that made it necessary to start the initiatives in which they were involved. Their responses varied between not involved, unspecified and involved on different levels and from the community identifying needs and problems to individuals going to management with needs and problems.

Theme 10 – Sub-theme A: Not involved

Responses from participants who noted that they were not involved in identifying needs and problems in the community are shown in Table 5.29.

Table 5.29: Types of involvement in identifying needs and problems in the community – Not involved: Capacity-building initiatives presented by management

Theme 10: Types of involvement with identifying needs and problems in the community		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Not involved	Capacity-building initiatives presented by management	<p><i>"The programmes were offered to us because of new business ventures on the farm and we needed the skills."</i></p> <p><i>They presented the programme</i> <i>"Hulle het die program aangebied."</i></p> <p><i>We were not involved.</i> <i>"Ons was nie betrokke nie."</i></p>

n = 21

Six (29%) of the participants said that they had not been involved in the identification of needs and problems and that the initiatives were offered to them by management. (***"The programmes were offered to us because of new business ventures on the farm and we needed the skills"***). These findings are more in line with the social action model than with the social development model explained by Cox *et al.* (1987:5), a top-down approach that is concerned with establishing, arranging, and developing goods and services to people who need them.

Table 5.30: Types of involvement in identifying needs and problems in the community - Not involved: Unspecified

Theme 10: Types of involvement in identifying needs and problems in the community		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Not involved	Unspecified	<p><i>I don't know</i> <i>"Ek weet nie."</i></p> <p><i>I only came later, I don't know.</i> <i>"Ek het agterna gekom, ek weet nie."</i></p>

n = 21

Three (4%) said they did not know if they had really been involved in identifying the needs and problems that led to the capacity-building initiatives that the participants were a part of. ("***I don't know***"). This finding implies that the social development model, as explained by Cox *et al.* (1987:5) was not utilised in this instance. It is important, however, to note that, in many instances, the models of community work intervention that are used may change during the course of the intervention process or at a certain point in a project as capacity develops in the target group.

Theme 10 – Sub-theme B: Involvement

Twelve (57%) of the participants felt that they had been involved in identifying the needs and problems in the community. The two areas of involvement highlighted by the participants were community discussion (category 1) and going to management with needs and problems (category 2).

Table 5.31: Types of involvement in identifying needs and problems in the community – Involvement: Community Discussions

Theme 10: Types of involvement in identifying needs and problems in the community		
Sub-theme B	Category 1	Narratives
Involvement	Community Discussions	<p><i>We are a small group that reached out to the other men to see what would interest them.</i> <i>“Ons is ‘n klein groep wat uitgereik het na die ander manne om te sien wat die belangstelling is.”</i></p> <p><i>As a group we ourselves saw the problem because we are part of the community</i> <i>“Ons het as ‘n groep self die probleem gesien want ons is deel van die gemeenskap.”</i></p> <p><i>I first chatted to the other parents before I started the group. I had the feeling that they had nothing to do in the afternoons while the other groups were busy.</i> <i>“Ek het eers met die ander ouers gepraat voor ek die groep gestig het. Ek het gevoel hulle het niks gehad om te doen in die middag terwyl die ander groepe besig is.”</i></p>

n = 21

According to Rothman (1968), the social planning model requires the expert to identify the needs and problems; the social action model suggests the use both the expert/worker and the community; while the locality development model places the emphasis on the community's input in the identification of the need/problem. The excerpts in **Table 5.31** are in line with the locality development model. (*“I first chatted to the other parents before I started the group. I had the feeling that they had nothing to do in the afternoons while the other groups were busy”*). This experience of a community member is an example of taking the initiative and starting a programme with input from other community members.

Table 5.32: Types of involvement in identifying needs and problems in the community – Involvement: Management

Themes: Types of involvement in identifying needs and problems in the community		
Sub-theme	Category 2	Narratives
Involvement	Management	<p><i>The parents, especially the women went to the social worker and said that they could not go out and work because there was nobody to look after the children.</i></p> <p><i>“Die ouers, veral die vrouens, het na die maatskaplike werker gegaan en gesê dat hulle kon nie werk nie want daar was niemand om na hulle kinders te kyk.”</i></p> <p><i>I myself went and enquired when I saw that there was a need for training in a specific area.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek het ook self gaan vra as ek gesien het daar was ‘n behoefte vir training in ‘n spesifieke area.”</i></p> <p><i>But the parents complained to management that the children do not do their homework. The parents are tired when they come home and can’t always help. The parents are not stupid but the (school) work has changed so much and some of the parent did not get the chance to complete their school studies.</i></p> <p><i>“..... Maar die ouers het gekla by die bestuur dat die kinders doen nie hulle huiswerk nie. Die ouers is moeg as hulle by die huis kom en kon nie altyd help nie. Die ouers is nie dom nie maar die werk het so verander en sommige ouers het nie die geleentheid gehad om skool te voltooi nie.”</i></p>

n = 21

The above experiences are examples of community members taking charge of their situation by identifying their needs and problems to management (*“The parents, especially, the women went to the social worker and said that they could not go out and work because there was nobody to look after the children”*).

5.3.9.3: Representation of the community in the running of the programmes

The participants were asked whether a committee of farm workers were involved in the running of the programmes/initiatives in which they were involved.

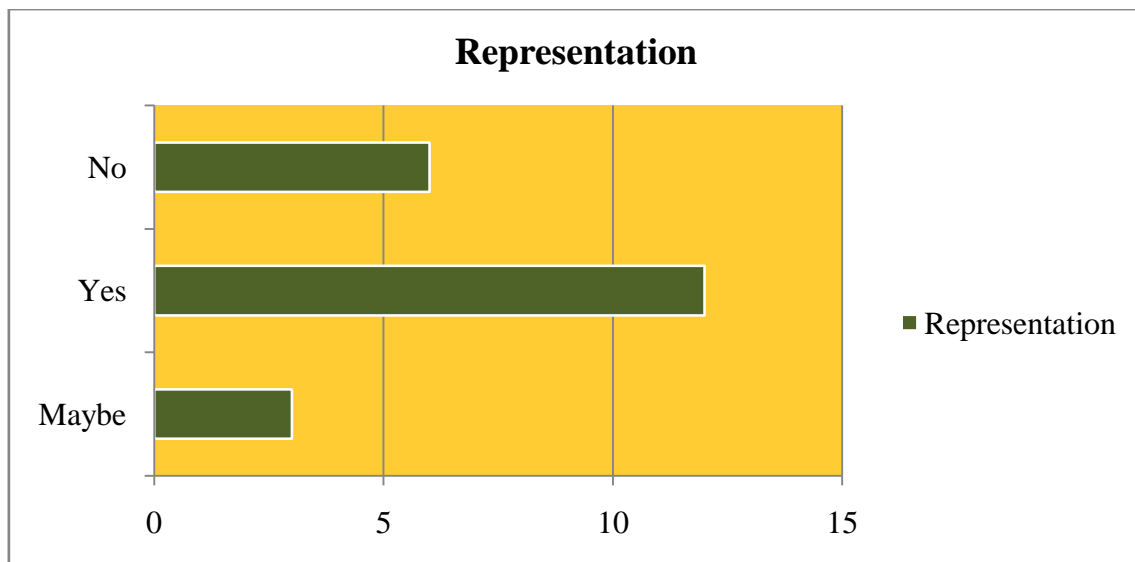


Figure 5.13: The community representation in the running of the programmes
n = 21

While the majority (12, or 57%), felt that their committees had a say in developing initiatives, a significant minority (6, or 29%) felt that they did not and three (14%), did not know. Representation by the community is of utmost importance when using the locality development model developed by Rothman (1968). While representation by the community is not required in the social planning model, it can also be a useful tool in the social action model. Homan (2004:258) recognises that the human capital of an enterprise/community is its most valuable resource. The locality development model proposes that community change may be pursued optimally through broad participation of a wide spectrum of people at the local community level in goal developing and action (Cox *et al.*, 1987:5). It is important to note, however, that, while the locality development model is earmarked as the most effective means for capacity-building initiatives in this study, these initiatives often start from the social planning model before they evolve into pure examples of the locality development model.

5.3.9.4: Theme 11: The responsibility of community members in planning their work in the programmes

The participants were asked how they, as members of a programme, took responsibility for planning the work they do. Responses varied from “*doing own planning*” to “*doing group planning*” to “*formal programmes*” where the planning was done for the participants.

Theme 11 – Sub-theme A: Self-responsibility

Planning, according to Ferrinho (1980:62), as cited in Lombard (1992:262), is

...to interpret the situation creatively, to ensure consensus on planned action, and to gain peoples' participation in implementing the plan. Without this the people will not be able to mould their future with their own minds and their own hands.

Table 5.33: Responsibility for planning of initiative work taken by the community – Self-responsibility: Own planning

Themes 11: Community participation		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Self-responsibility	Own planning	<p><i>I do all my own planning for my group, we get some advice and a “ideas” from the head but we plan all our activities, it takes a lot out of one</i></p> <p><i>“Ek doen al my eie beplanning vir my groep, ons kry raad en ‘n idees van die hoof af maar ons beplan ons aktiwiteite, dit vat baie uit ‘n mens.”</i></p> <p><i>I plan the fitness programme for the team</i></p> <p><i>“Ek beplan self die fitness program vir die span.”</i></p>

n = 21

A few of the respondents reported that they did their planning by themselves, subject to the capacity-building initiative in which they were involved (“***I do all my own planning for my group***”). In the social planning model (Rothman, 1968), the expert or the social worker will do the planning and then select the most suitable plan; in the social action model there could be a combination of both the expert and the community, while, in the locality development model, the community is both part of the planning and the selection of the plan and then involved in preparing the community for the project. The above-mentioned experiences of participants are examples of individual community members' involvement as suggested in locality development model.

Table 5.34: Responsibility for planning of initiative work taken by the community – Self-responsibility: Group planning

Theme 11: Community participation		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Self Responsibility	Group planning	<p><i>My colleagues and I together do the planning weekly for our age group in the crèche.</i> <i>“Ek en my kollega doen saam weeklikse beplanning vir ons ouderdomsgroep in die crèche”</i></p> <p><i>Yes, I do my planning for my class together with my colleague.</i> <i>“Ja ek doen my beplanning vir my klas saam met my kollega.”</i></p> <p><i>I am a representative for the choir and we do our planning together</i> <i>“Ek is ‘n representative, die vir die koor so ons doen saam beplanning.”</i></p> <p><i>We work it all out ourselves.</i> <i>“Ons werk alles self uit.”</i></p>

n = 21

The majority of participants reported that they do group planning (“***Yes, I do my planning for my class together with my colleague and I am a representative for the choir and we do our planning together***”). This is a further example of the use of the locality development model being demonstrated. According to Homan (2004:206), the community is the context of the action, and power gives strength and purpose to the concerns of the community. Planning puts that concentrated power to use by providing the approach and direction for actions by community members; it should be a continuous process. Through involving the ‘target’ community in the planning process, elements of the strengths perspective (Saleeby, 1992) are utilised and the community will be required to use their assets and resources to empower themselves and build capacity in their community.

Theme 11 – Sub-theme B: Management initiative

Table 5.35 shows how participants presented their responsibility in planning initiatives.

**Table 5.35: Responsibility for planning of initiative work taken by the community –
Management initiative: Formal programme**

Theme 11: Community participation		
Sub-theme B	Category 1	Narratives
Management initiative	Formal programme	<p><i>Our manager gives us a programme for the events that we do ourselves, but then we do the work by ourselves on the day.</i></p> <p><i>“Ons manager gee vir ons ‘n program van die events wat ons doen maar ons doen self die werk op die dag.”</i></p> <p><i>It was offered to us.</i></p> <p><i>“Dit was aangebied vir ons.”</i></p> <p><i>It was a formal course.</i></p> <p><i>“Dit was ‘n formele kursus.”</i></p>

n = 21

The table shows how the participants described their involvement in the planning process. Responses varied according to the type of capacity-building initiative. Some participants reported that they did individual planning (“***we do the work by ourselves***”) while others did group planning and some were not involved due to formal training (“***...a formal course***”) that was offered by management. According to Homan (2004:206), the community is the context of the action, and power gives strength and purpose to the concerns of the community. Planning puts that concentrated power to use by providing the approach and direction for actions by community members and this should be a continuous process. Through involving the ‘target’ community in the planning process, elements of the strengths perspective are utilised and the community is required to use their assets and resources to empower themselves and build capacity in their community.

5.3.9.5: Theme 12: Solving of social problems within the community through the community’s involvement in initiatives

The participants were asked how they felt the community’s involvement in the implementation of the programmes had helped to solve any social problems experienced by the community. According to Lombard (1992:268), the most important requirements for action during the implementation phase is that action should concur with the planning, be aim-oriented, include participation at grass-roots level, be coordinated and be adapted from time to time. The participants highlighted three areas which they felt contributed to solving social problems within the community.

- a) Under sub-theme A: types of involvement which include acquired skills, recreation and constructive care for children
- b) These types of involvement are presented in Table 5.36. The first area that was highlighted was the acquisition of skills.

Table 5.36: Solving of social problems within the community through the community's involvement in initiatives – Types of involvement: Acquired skills

Theme 12: Solving of social problems within the community through the community's involvement in initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Types of involvements	Acquired skills	<p><i>People learned new skills and I would say that this kept them out of trouble.</i></p> <p><i>“Mense het nuwe vaardighede aangeleer en ek sou sê dit hou hulle uit die moeilikheid uit”</i></p> <p><i>“I think the training has helped because people have had the opportunity to learn new skill and do something instead of being at home.”</i></p>

n = 21

The importance of education and learning was expressed by some of the participants (*“People **learned new skills** and I would say that this kept them out of trouble”*). This is in line with the explanation by Green and Nieman (2003:161) that the utilisation of groups and networks and ensuring that training is available will encourage innovation, thus one can deduce that by increasing the level of education in the community social ills may to some extent be less inclined to dominate day-to-day life in farming communities.

Theme 12 – Sub-theme A: Types of involvement, Category 2: Recreation: keeping the community busy

The next category that involved the participants was involvement for recreational purposes.

Table 5.37: Solving of social problems within the community through the community's involvement in initiatives – Types of involvement: Recreation keeping the community busy

Theme 12: Solving social problems within the community through the community's involvement in initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Types of involvements	Recreation: keeping the community busy	<p><i>It keeps the people busy over weekends and evenings so that there is not so much time for drinking.</i> <i>"Dit hou die mense naweke en saans besig so daar is nie tyd vir drank en dwelms nie."</i></p> <p><i>The programme provides relaxation and it's a very good thing because there is very little time for drink and drugs when you are involved.</i> <i>"Die programme gee ontspanning en dis 'n goeie ding want daar is nie baie tyd vir drink en dwelms as jy betrokke is."</i></p> <p><i>Yes it keeps the young people out of trouble and keeps them busy.</i> <i>"Ja, dit hou die jong mense uit die moeilikheid uit en hou almal besig."</i></p> <p><i>The programme makes a huge difference; the children are all involved in a good thing. It's relaxation for the grownups and we get good support from the community at our ATKV programme as well as with the choir.</i> <i>"Die program maak 'n groot verskil die kinders is nou betrokke by 'n goeie ding. Dis ontspanning vir die groot mense en ons kry goeie support van die gemeenskap by ons ATKV program sowel as by die koor."</i></p> <p><i>It has helped a lot because the community is very busy over weekends and in the evenings</i> <i>"Dit het gehelp want die gemeenskap is nou baie besig saans en oor naweke. Daar is nie regtig kans om ander dinge aan te vang."</i></p>

n = 21

Many of the participants said that the initiatives in which they were involved were very good for the community as everyone who was involved was kept busy with positive activities. Responses ranged from **"The programme provides relaxation and it's a very good thing because there is very little time for drink and drugs when you are involved"** to **"It has**

helped a lot because the community is very busy over weekends and in the evenings". This echoes Viljoen's (2008:33) view that there usually is a decrease in alcohol consumption and the farm workers are given an opportunity to focus less on other hardships they experience in their daily lives on farms where workers have access to these activities. Thus recreational activities make a positive contribution to the lives of farm labourers.

Theme 12 – Sub-theme A: Types of involvements, Category 3: Constructive care for children

The last area of involvement highlighted by the participants was the constructive care for children which led to a decrease in social ills in the community.

Table 5.38: Solving of social problems within the community through the community's involvement in initiatives – Types of involvement: Constructive care for children

Theme 12: Solving of social problems within the community through the community's involvement in initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 3	Narratives
Types of involvements	Constructive care for children	<p><i>I think it has helped especially with the young people to keep them out of trouble. It keeps them away from drugs, and drink and gives them something to do, especially with Rugby.</i></p> <p><i>"Ek dink dit het gehelp veral die jongmense om op die regte pad te bly. Dit hou hulle weg van dwelms, drank en gee vir hulle iets om te doen veral by die Rugby."</i></p> <p><i>I feel the Anna Foundation helps the children not to be naughty they know they must be at midday at the programme and nowhere else.</i></p> <p><i>"Ek voel die Anna Foundation help die kinders om nie gewillig te wees nie, hulle weet hulle moet middag by die program wees en nie op 'n ander plek nie."</i></p> <p><i>The crèche and the Anna Foundation and the sports project help the youth, but the grownups carry on as usual</i></p> <p><i>"Die crèche en die Anna Foundation en die sportprojek help die jeug maar die grootmense gaan soos altyd aan."</i></p>

n = 21

The participants in this study all reported that they felt the community members' involvement in the implementation of the various capacity-building programmes had helped solve the social problems in the community. According to the participants, the programmes which provide constructive care for the children have also contributed to curbing social ills in their community. (*"I feel the Anna Foundation helps the children not to be naughty they know they must be at midday at the programme and nowhere else"*).

5.3.9.5: Participation in the evaluation of the initiatives

The participants were asked whether they took part in evaluating the initiatives they have been involved with.

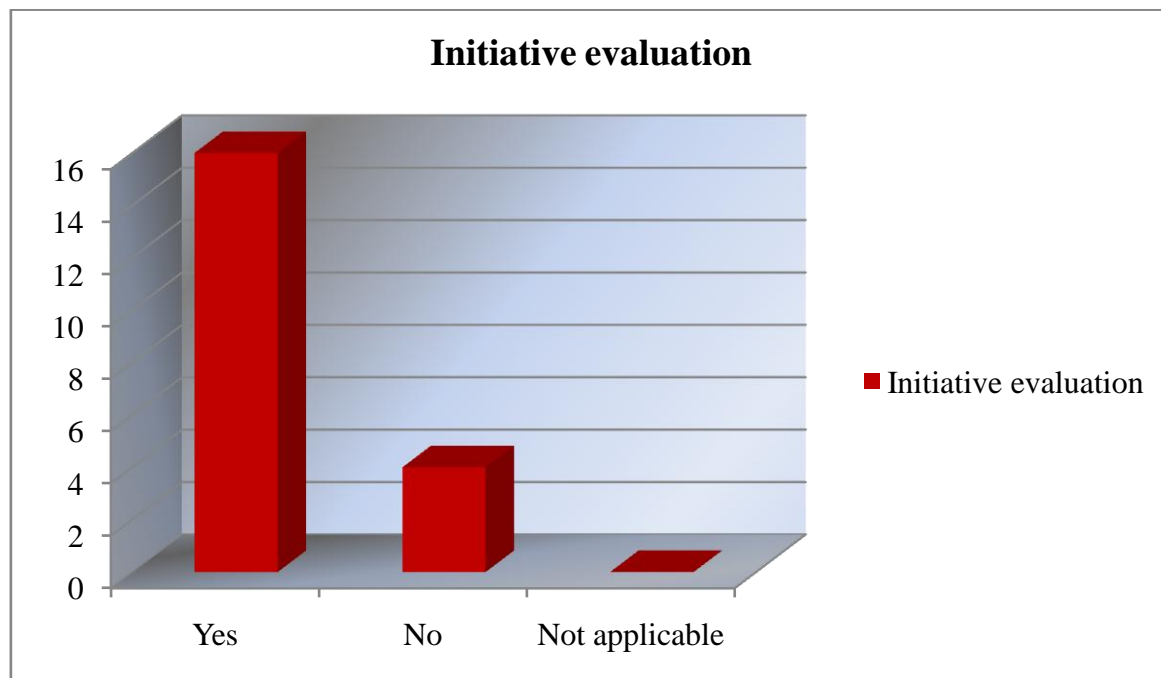


Figure 5.14: Participation in initiative evaluation

n = 21

Most respondents, (16, or 76%) took part in an evaluation of the programmes in which they participated. Four (19%) said they did not take part in evaluating the initiative in which they were involved and one (5%) participant said it was not applicable. Evaluating a project is of utmost importance as it determines whether the project contributed to achieving the envisaged objectives and, if it did, to what degree (Lombard, 1992:269). From a social development perspective, the 'target' community should evaluate the outcome of the project

as this is also a skill that builds capacity and empowers the individuals and the community as a whole.

5.3.9.6: Theme 13: General perception of the value of the initiatives

The participants were asked to say what they felt in general about the value of the capacity-building initiatives available to the farm workers and their families at Solms-Delta. The following sub-theme emerged: On a personal level it has provided recreation and created opportunities, at a community level it has improved the social situation and it has also added value for the company Solms-Delta. According to all of the participants in this study, the outcomes of these programmes have been imperative to empowering (Nieman, 2008:23) individuals who have participated.

Theme 13 – Sub-theme A: Personal, Category 1: Recreation

The following table presents the view of a participant on the value of recreation in capacity-building initiatives.

Table 5.39: Value of capacity-building initiatives as perceived by the participants themselves – Personal: Recreation

Theme 13: Value of capacity-building initiatives as Perceived by the participants themselves		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Personal	Recreation	<i>It has value. It gives benefits to all. There is a lot of recreation in the programme.</i> <i>“Dit het waarde. Dit gee goeie voordele vir almal.</i> <i>Daar is baie ontspanning in die program.”</i>

n = 21

Due to the isolation of most farming communities and a lack of resources, recreational activities are few and far between for farm workers. Some of the participants said that they have found the value of the programmes to be in the recreation provided for the individual participants. One of the participants said: “***It gives benefits to all. There is a lot of recreation in the programme***”. This corresponds with Viljoen’s (2008:33) view that access to recreational activities in farming communities is of utmost importance.

Theme 13 – Sub-theme A: Personal, Category 2: Opportunities

Participants expressed the opinion that opportunities they have had constituted the value of capacity-building initiatives in which they participated. This is recorded in Table 5.40.

Table 5.40: Value of capacity-building initiatives as perceived by the participants themselves – Personal: Opportunities

Theme 13: Value of capacity-building initiatives as perceived by the participants themselves		
Sub-theme A	Category 2	Narratives
Personal	Opportunities	<p><i>Is very important to me especially the training, since the training gives knowledge and knowledge is power.</i></p> <p><i>“Dit is vir my baie belangrik veral die training die voed ‘n mens met knowledge en knowledge is power.”</i></p> <p><i>It is good because it helps people achieve their goals. If you want to study further it gives you the opportunity.</i></p> <p><i>“Dit is goed dit help die mense om hulle doelwitte te bereik. As julle wil verder leer dan kry jy die ondersteuning.”</i></p> <p><i>I will say it’s good, many opportunities are offered to you and it just depends on yourself whether you want to make use of it or not.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek sal sê dis goed, daar is baie geleenthede van aangebied word en dit hang net van jouself af of jy die geleentheid wil gebruik of nie.”</i></p> <p><i>I feel it is very good; it gives you an opportunity in your life to become a better person.</i></p> <p><i>“Ek voel dis baie goed, dit is ‘n geleentheid wat jy in jou lewe kry om ‘n beter mens te word.”</i></p>

n = 21

The majority of the participants felt that capacity-building has most value on a personal level in that it provides opportunities. The participants’ responses ranged from “...***the training gives knowledge and knowledge is power***” to “... ***it gives you an opportunity in your life to become a better person***”. The ultimate goal of the Wijn de Caab trust is to broaden horizons, create opportunities and minimise burdens for its beneficiaries through various capacity-building initiatives (Wijn de Caab Trust document, 2007). From the experiences of participants, it can be deduced that that this aim is in the process of being achieved for the majority of participants.

Theme 13 – Sub-theme B: Community

The second sub-theme identified by the participants concerned the value that the capacity-building initiatives have had on a community level. These participants reported that it has aided positive social interaction for the community.

Table 5.41: Value of capacity-building initiatives as perceived by the participants themselves – Community: Social situation

Theme 13: Value of capacity-building initiatives as perceived by the participants themselves		
Sub-theme B	Category 1	Narratives
Community	Social situation	<p><i>It has great value, we involve the community and it teaches them new things, it keeps them out of mischief, especially the young people.</i></p> <p><i>“Dit het goeie waarde, ons betrek die gemeenskap en dit leer vir hulle nuwe goed en hou hulle uit die kwaad uit, veral die jong mense.”</i></p> <p><i>“It’s very good for the community because the children are also involved and learning lots of things. The training and programmes help a lot and you don’t have to worry about your children because they are being looked after and learning. They are people from the farm running the programmes so they are not left with strangers and everyone is comfortable.”</i></p>

n = 21

Two (10%) of the participants said that there was great value in the capacity-building programmes for the community as a whole in terms of improving the social situation on the farm.

It is evident from what participants reported, for instance (***“It has great value, we involve the community and it teaches them new things, it keeps them out of mischief, especially the young people”***), that some of the participants feel that the social situation on the farm has improved due to capacity-building initiatives that involved a large number of the community.

Theme 13 – Sub-theme C: Company

A third area in which value has been added was the Solms-Delta company.

Table 5.42: Value of capacity-building initiatives as perceived by the participants themselves – Company: Skills

Theme 13: Value of capacity-building initiatives as perceived by the participants themselves		
Sub-theme C	Category 1	Narratives
Company	Skills	<p><i>I will say that it is important for the farm as a business and also for them personally.</i> <i>“Ek kan so sê dis belangrik vir die plaas as ‘n besigheid en ook vir hulle persoonlik.”</i></p> <p><i>Everyone can learn from it and improve, so it has great value for the company also.</i> <i>“Almal kan daaruit leer en verbeter so dit het groot waarde,”</i></p>

n = 21

A further two (10%) of the participants felt that skills had been increased through the capacity-building initiatives and that value had thus been added value to the Solms-Delta company: (“***Everyone can learn from it and improve, so it has great value for the company also***”). With the business model of Solms-Delta with the Wijn de Caab trust as a one-third shareholder, the profits are split and the more the money generated, the more the money that can be ploughed back into the community, thus enabling more capacity-building initiatives.

According to McEwan and Bek (2005:1032), empowerment initiatives may not yet be delivering radical outcomes; they, however, are part of a process of setting a tone throughout South African society and perhaps beyond, thereby reinforcing the imperative of transformation and identifying some of the challenges that are situated in the local, national and global power structures.

5.3.10: Theme 14: Additional initiatives needed and the reasons for their implementation

The participants were asked what kind of initiative it would be if they were given the opportunity to start a new initiative or programme on the farm, and why they would do so. Many of the participants expressed a desire to add to the capacity-building initiatives on Solms-Delta. This could be a direct result of the positive effect that the current programmes are having on the community. Suggested initiatives included recreation and education.

a) Findings related to sub-theme A: Recreation will now be discussed

Table 5.43: Examples of new initiatives – Sport: Walking group

Theme 14: New programmes		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Recreation	Sport	<p><i>Walking Group – to keep me fit and healthy, I enjoy it.</i> <i>“Walking Group – om my fiks en gesond te hou, ek geniet dit.”</i></p> <p><i>Walking Group – It is my passion and I love it, it keeps people healthy.</i> <i>“Walking group – Dis my passie en ek hou daarvan, dit hou mense gesond.”</i></p> <p><i>I will begin a programme for young children and dance, particularly the boys because there is a lot of talent.</i> <i>“Ek sal ‘n program begin vir die jong kinders met dans, veral met die seuns want daar is baie talent.”</i></p>

n = 21

Three (14%) of the participants expressed an interest in starting another sport programme such as a walking team (“***Walking Group – to keep me fit and healthy, I enjoy it***”) and a dance group (“***I will begin a programme for young children and dance, particularly the boys because there is a lot of talent***”). Kretzmann (1993:13-14) states that every single person has capacities, abilities, gifts or assets. Kretzman (1993:13) refers to the raw material for community-building as the capacity of the individual members. These narratives reveal that these individuals are focused on abilities and assets in the community and wish to use these capacities to create the desired recreational opportunities.

b) Findings related to sub-theme B: Education will now be discussed.

Table 5.44: Examples of new initiatives – Education: Adult evening classes

Theme 14: New programmes		
Sub-theme B	Category 1	Narratives
Education	Adult evening classes	<p><i>Evening classes, it is very logical; there are many illiterate people that need an opportunity.</i> <i>“Aandskool, dit is logies, daar is baie mense wat ongeleerd is en ‘n opportunity het.”</i></p> <p><i>Evening classes because there are still many who need to learn.</i> <i>“Aandskool want daar is nog baie wat moet leer.”</i></p>

n = 21

Two (10%) of the participants expressed an interest in starting an adult education programme (*“Evening classes because there are still many who need to learn”*). This excerpt echoes Viljoen (2008:31), who states that farm labourers have the lowest level of education in South Africa.

c) Findings related to sub-theme C: The improvement of economic circumstances will now be discussed

Table 5.45: Examples of new initiatives – Women’s activities - Crafts

Theme 14: New programmes		
Sub-theme C	Category 1	Narratives
Improvement of economic circumstances	Women’s group	<p><i>A programme for women, handicrafts, things that you can make particularly with stuff from the farm, like vine roots, something we can sell. We can also do needlework and knitting.</i> <i>“‘n Program vir vroue, handwerkvaardighede, goed wat ons kan maak veral met goed wat op die plaas is soos wingerdstokke, iets wat ons kan verkoop. Ons kan ook brei en hekel en naaldwerk doen.”</i></p>

n = 21

One (5%) of the participants expressed an interest in starting a women’s group. (*“A programme for women, handicrafts, things that you can make particularly with stuff from the farm, like vine roots, something we can sell. We can also do needlework and knitting”*).

Such a project would be in line with Midgley's (1995:25) definition of social development which emphasises a dynamic process of economic development.

5.3.11: Theme 15: Advice to others who want to get involved in a programme

The participants were asked what advice they would give to other farm workers wanting to participate in a programme, if they were asked to do so.

Theme 15 – Sub-theme A: Participation

Table 5.46 presents advice from participants on how to start initiatives

Table 5.46: Advice – Participation: Encouragement

Theme 15: Advice on how to start initiatives		
Sub-theme A	Category 1	Narratives
Participation	Encouragement	<p><i>I will encourage them to be more involved with everything that happens on the farm, specifically sport and other communal activities.</i> <i>“Ek sal vir hulle aanmoedig om meer betrokke te raak by alles wat aangaan op die plaas, spesifiek sport wat mense nader bring en ander gemeenskaplike projekte.”</i></p> <p><i>I will encourage them to participate.</i> <i>“Ek sal hulle aanmoedig om deel te neem.”</i></p> <p><i>I will encourage them to do it, to keep people happy they must take part in programmes.</i> <i>“Ek sal hulle aanraai om dit te doen, om mense gelukkig te hou moet jy in programme deelneem.”</i></p> <p><i>“Go for it!”</i></p>

n = 21

All the participants said they would encourage other farm workers to get involved and participate in capacity-building programmes and initiatives. Responses varied from (“***I will encourage them to participate***”) to (“***Go for it!***”). It is thus evident that all of the participants in this study have had a positive experience from being involved in capacity-building initiatives on Solms-Delta and would encourage every other farm worker to get involved. According to Nel (2006:234), it is a capacity-building approach which relies on visionary community-based leadership, where ‘anticipatory’ needs determine what is required to be done to move forward in the future. It can be deduced from the information in the table

that the participants feel that there is a need for community intervention and participation to promote community-based leadership.

5.4 CONCLUSION

From this study it can be seen that the capacity-building initiatives on Solms-Delta wine estate have been hugely beneficial to the participants at individual, group and community level. As cited in Falletisch (2008:97-98), Gathiram (2005) says that, for empowerment and poverty alleviation programmes to be successful there has to be a shift in power relationships between individuals, groups and social institutions. Based on these findings, the social development model as described in this chapter has illustrated the success of the interventions, both the specific programmes and the structures that were put in place have evolved; the impact of the initiatives go beyond the boundaries of the workplace and the households directly involved. Like a good wine, development has improved with time!

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The researcher set out to review experiences on a single wine farm (Solms-Delta), in some ways typical of the industry, in order to explore how the social development model of social work could be applied to the farm community and the lessons available to other farm communities. The exploration was initiated due to the researcher's own experiences of working on Solms-Delta and the apparent lack of capacity-building initiatives available to farm workers, as well as a gap in the existing literature of relevant examples of successful community development on wine farms.

Solms-Delta has broken the mould through many initiatives; exploring the roots of exploitation through studying the life stories of the farm workers, management formed a platform to empower the workers through understanding their own life trajectories. The holistic approach to the farm workers' insertion into personal, community, national, and world settings provided the means for farm workers to reflect on themselves and so take charge of their own lives.

The aim of this chapter is to present the conclusions drawn from the findings of the study and to make appropriate recommendations. The recommendations will serve as a guideline for others involved in intervention initiatives who wish to build capacity for farm workers on wine farms in the Western Cape.

Through having conducted a thorough literature review and an empirical study, it is possible to draw conclusions and make recommendations. The conclusions and recommendations presented below are related to the aim and objectives of the study.

6.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

6.2.1 Aim of study

The aim of this study was to gain an understanding of the nature of capacity-building initiatives undertaken at Solms-Delta that have influenced the quality of the lives of farm workers and to develop lessons from a social development perspective.

6.2.2 First objective of study

The first objective was to present an overview of the historical background of farm workers' subjugation on wine farms in the Western Cape, thereby setting a framework to understand the unique combination of challenges facing the Western Cape farm worker. Chapter 2 dealt with the evolution of colonial and Apartheid era forms of subjugation and the ramifications for farm workers on Western Cape wine farms.

6.2.3 Second objective of study

The second objective was to outline the evolution of the socio-economic status of farm workers on wine farms in the Western Cape up to the present. Chapter 3 outlined the main determinants – economic, social and political – that created the framework within which participants and researcher operated. This is reflected in the semi-structured interviews conducted with participants who, for a number of years, had been exposed to community-development initiatives. The physical constraints on development, e.g. size of the household (Figure 5.4) and educational level (Figure 5.5) display qualifications higher than enumerated in other sample groups (Slabbert, 2010:121).

6.2.4 Third objective of study

The third objective was to describe the nature of capacity-building initiatives that were undertaken and their impact on the socio-economic status of farm workers from a social development perspective. Chapter 4 presented an outline of the theoretical shift from prescriptive to participatory social work models, and their relevance to the evolution of social work interventions among the farm workers under review.

The success of the interventions is neatly captured in changes in occupation (Figures 5.6 and 5.7) where the shifts from essentially manual labour positions on the farm (57%) indicate upgrading to include managerial (19%), retail (19%) and service (5%) jobs. The doubling of

child care provisioning (from 14% to 33%) is indicative of the company's investment in the future.

The breadth and opportunities of involvement are also reflected in the social development portion of the questionnaire: themes one to seven relate to the scope and involvement of participants and also reflect greater ownership in programme design. The strengths perspective reflected in themes 7 and 8 reinforce the success of the interventions to develop self-confidence in participants.

6.2.5 Fourth objective of study

The fourth objective was to explore how the interventions to date have contributed towards building capacity and the quality of life of farm workers on the wine farm under review. The empirical findings are presented in Chapter 5. Themes 9 to 14 encapsulate the development of vibrant community participation and ownership of the initiatives offered to, and then developed by, the participants. What is clearly reflected in the participants' responses to the questionnaire is a level of maturity in participants' ability to accept help and offer guidance toward building capacity-building programmes.

6.2.6 Fifth objective of the study

The fifth and final objective of the study was to present guidelines for others who are involved in intervention initiatives that aim to build capacity for farm workers on wine farms in the Western Cape. In the words of the participants, as related in Theme 15, the study concludes with the observations below.

6.3 CONCLUSION AND RECOMENDATIONS

6.3.1 Details of the participants

All the participants who took part were between the ages of 18 and 24, therefore all were adults who worked on the Solms-Delta wine estate. There were both male and female participants; some of them had life partners while others did not. The participants had varied living circumstances; however overcrowding was a point of concern for the majority of participants.

From these findings it can be concluded that the general profile of farm labourers varies with age, gender, life partner status and living circumstances. Hence there is not one characteristic that stands out above the other.

It is recommended that, with regard to diversity of farm workers' circumstances:

- Capacity-building initiatives should be rendered on wine farms in the Western Cape to farm workers of all ages and with varying family structures and living conditions.

6.3.2 Education

All of the participants attended school at some stage in their lives: most of them attended primary school, very few matriculated and none of them progressed to tertiary education or any other form of higher education. Despite the Education and Training Act No. 90 of 1979, which aimed to introduce compulsory education in all areas, facilities in rural areas remained inadequate. Other problems experienced in farming communities, such as dispersed settlements, poor transport systems, absence of qualified staff, low economic status, widespread malnutrition and lack of parental involvement have all played a role.

It can thus be concluded that there is adequate information to consider farm workers as having received the lowest level of education in South Africa, to explain why they are regarded as an 'unschooled' occupation group (Viljoen, 2008:31).

It is recommended that, with regard to capacity-building initiatives:

- Further education should be prioritised in farming communities in the Western Cape.
- Social workers should advocate for farm owners to provide opportunities for further education.

6.3.3 Work experience

All those that took part in the survey benefited from training opportunities; there was a shift away from farm work and insecurity. Fifteen out of twenty-one participants worked as labourers when first employed on the farm, but this figure fell to just two: child care employment doubled and management, retail, and worker safety accounted for 47% of work when the study was undertaken.

The success of the initiatives at Solms-Delta are reflected in the ability of a predominantly 'uneducated' workforce taking control of their lives through participation in capacity-building initiatives. It is recommended that:

- The Solms-Delta model for training should be studied by similar enterprises as a means to engender skills development in farm working communities.

6.3.4 Income per month

Most of the participants were earning two-and-a-half times the minimum wage at the time of the survey. It is difficult to obtain meaningful comparisons from historical data given inflation rates and changes in service delivery in the area over the preceding decade. What is clear from this snapshot is that financial independence has been significantly elevated above the government-mandated minimum wage. This could only come about through improving the level of skills of the participants. It may be concluded that the deepening of financial independence comes about through capacity building.

It is recommended that, with regard to capacity-building initiatives:

- Training should be prioritised as a means to increase financial independence in farm communities.
- Work opportunities on farms can be made more effective, and therefore more remunerative, by initiating a range of skills development programmes.

6.3.5 The socio-economic circumstances of farm workers

Most of the participants found alcohol abuse to be the main obstacle to bettering their socio-economic status. It testifies to the success of the programmes that lack of education was not perceived as an impediment to improving the participants' lives. The very low level of their concern with respect to issues related to health, housing, and working conditions is indicative of the success of the Wijn de Caab Trust objectives. The participants' ability to examine their status within the broader Western Cape farming community's socio-economic ranking is confirmed in the literature examined for the research.

The three areas of concern for most participants continue to be alcohol abuse, drug abuse and domestic violence, although the latter was ranked much less significant as a causative factor. It is concluded from both the survey and research conducted that the dop system remains generationally embedded in the social fabric of farm-working communities.

To enhance the socio-economic profile of farm communities, it is recommended that,

- all capacity-building programmes should contain components to counter the effects of alcohol abuse;

- the link between low economic status and substance abuse, specifically alcohol and its role in domestic violence, should be raised for farm workers to engage with this reality;
- issues relating to isolation on farms and access to services should be raised for debate among farm-working communities.

6.3.6 Social development

The literature review and the responses of participants mirror the centrality of capacity-building initiatives in deepening social development. Two strands that are seen to run through this investigation may be characterised as leisure and strictly economic capacity development. Those who research this and the workers are involved in both strands and the importance of this multigenerational approach to capacity development is reflected at the national level in the White Paper for Social Welfare.

From these findings it can be concluded that a holistic approach to capacity development broadens social development. It is recommended that

- Social development can best be achieved through holistic capacity-building programmes that target youth and workers for both leisure and the development of skills.
- Training programmes should be tailored according to the constraints that prevail in farm communities, so that time is managed to optimise community participation in the development of capacity development programmes.

6.3.7 Empowerment

Empowerment is both a goal and a result in capacity development – at an individual level, for the group, as well as for the broader community. The results on all three levels were gauged from the participants' responses about capacity-building initiatives. Participants' level of confidence, pride, ability to communicate, independence, decision making, and leadership skills were enhanced and were broadly attributed to their participation in capacity-development programmes.

More encouraging yet were the results of the study for individuals whose feelings of empowerment at the group level were overwhelmingly strengthened with regard to their co-workers and figures of authority. Finally, at the community level, participants found they were viewed as role models and could act independently.

It is recommended that

- Capacity-building programmes should operate on all three levels so that participants' self-image and that which is projected to their peers will grow with the acquisition of new skills, whether they are social or technical in nature.

6.3.8 The strengths perspective

The impact of capacity-development programmes can also be assessed through how individuals measured their self-worth, which, in turn, highlights their strengths. Social skills were translated into recognition by peers and employers. The response of participants showed that talent, knowledge, capacities and resources had been mobilised in the process of capacity development at Solms-Delta.

It is recommended that

- Capacity-development programmes should target self-esteem as well as offer skills.
- A strengths perspective approach should be adopted to enhance the positive results of capacity development, reinforcing empowerment above entitlement.

6.3.9 Community work

Community work practice complies with the basic principle of social work, namely to start where the client finds himself. Thus both the felt need and the real needs can motivate a community into action. More than half the participants felt that they had helped to initiate specific projects, with the same percentage viewing their input as steering those programmes. The evolution of capacity development programmes to the point where communities own the initiatives in the sense of driving a programme from its inception, often takes place alongside management-driven projects. Most participants took part in evaluating programmes in which they were involved. Participants valued the different forms of programme development and highlighted the diversity of needs – recreational and skills development – that flowed from the various programmes.

It is recommended that

- Social work principles be applied to all initiatives to enhance delivery
- Community development programmes be allowed to evolve to the point where the assets of the participants are fully utilised

- Evaluation of programmes is used heuristically, specifically for the development of resources for community development.

6.4 FURTHER RESEARCH

There is a need for more research into the conditions of specific communities and the circumstances that have created success as well as challenges for the communities involved. Community activists require access to resources that create an enabling environment. Models that have moved communities away from dependency and towards more individual freedom are works in progress. The success of community development relies on the commitment of social work practitioners understanding processes leading toward (and away from) sustainable livelihoods and communicating these as widely as possible.

The study has not outlined the particular forms of community development found on the case study farm under review, but rather detailed the themes that allowed the structures to evolve. The role of the social worker as facilitator and instigator (as an integral member of the community) can be viewed as a significant factor in the success of personal and community-development programmes. The interventions and structures developed at Solms-Delta set about to confront the legacy of the past, empower the participants, and actively engage the entire farming community as well as facilitate access to external resources, to broaden horizons, create opportunities and expand an enabling environment for community and personal development.

It is recommended that

- Information from case studies be disseminated to provide new practitioners with ideas and models to spark new development
- Physical resources for tackling addiction, creating sustainable livelihoods, and deepening democratic structures in society are created to sustain successful community development.
- Enabling environments be developed through creating self-awareness among participants as a starting point for community development. Knowledge of the legacy

of racial discrimination and the dop system needs to be woven into the development narrative.

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APPENDIX 1 - A SEMI-STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH **DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK**

A SEMI-STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE

Capacity building for farm workers on Solms-Delta **A social development perspective**

The aim of this research is to investigate the need for capacity building and empowerment initiatives for farm workers in the Western Cape from a social development perspective.

Please respond to the questions and statements as fully and objectively as you can. Give your answers verbally and the researcher will record them. The information you give on this questionnaire will remain confidential. The respondent's personal information and perceptions will not be made known.

1. DETAILS OF THE PARTICIPANT

1.1 Age: _____

1.2 Gender: _____

1.3 Do you have a life partner? _____

1.4 How many people live in your house? _____

2. EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

Never attended school	
Primary school	
Secondary school	
Tertiary	
Other	

3. WORK EXPERIENCE

3.1 What was your first job on the farm?

3.2 In what position are you now working in on the farm?

3.3 What kind of training did you receive to equip you for the work you are doing now?

3.4 Where did you do this training?

4. INCOME PER MONTH

Income	
R100 - R500	
R501 - R1 000	
R1 001 - R1 500	
R1 501 - R2 000	
R2 001 - R2 500	
R2 501 - R3 000	
R3 001 +	

5. THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CIRCUMSTANCES OF FARM WORKERS

The following section applies to your experience of the socio-economic status of farm workers

5.1 Give an indication of the priority level that you would give the following focus areas which can be regarded as difficulties that are prevalent in the farm community

Focus areas	Priority levels		
	Absent	Low	High
Working conditions			
Housing			
Education			
Health			
Alcohol abuse			
Domestic violence			
Poverty			
Other			

5.2 In which of the above-mentioned focus areas do you experience the most difficulties?

5.3 Please explain your experience

6. SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

6.1 Capacity building

6.1.1 Involvement in programmes

6.1.1.1 Which of the following capacity-building programmes have you been

involved in on this farm?

Capacity-building programmes	
Early childhood development centre/ Klein Handjies	
After school club that provides academic support and holistic development opportunities to school-going children on Solms-Delta/Anna Foundation	
Formal music education/Music Van de Caab project	
Skills development and recreational activity group for pensioners	
Further training in specific line of work	
Other	

6.1.1.2 How are you involved in this programme?

6.2 Training

6.2.1 What kind of training did/do you receive as a member of this programme?

Types of training	
Workshops	
Structured lectures/seminars	
On the job training	
Ongoing lessons	

6.2.2 Why do you think these training opportunities offered on the farm are important to the participant?

6.3 Outcomes of training

6.3.1 In which of the following ways do you feel the training has been important to you as an individual and as a member of the community?

Value of training	
To increase knowledge	
To learn new skills	
To provide recreation	
Other	

7. EMPOWERMENT

I want you to take a few moments to think back to when you first became involved in “name of programme” and how you felt about yourself then.

7.1 Individual level

7.1.1 Since your involvement in the programme or training, how has your ability in the following areas changed?

Focus Areas	Explanation
Self-esteem	
Assertiveness	
Independence	
Decision making	

7.2 Group level

7.2.1 What kind of respect do you feel you as a group of people working in the same place have gained in the farm community as a result of participating in this programme/training?

7.2.2 Please explain:

7.2.3 Do you feel that, as part of a group (name of the programme/training), you are able to organise yourselves and act independently without instruction?

7.2.4 Please explain or give an example:

7.3 Community level

7.3.1 What ability do you as a community of people have to express your needs and make changes to practices and rules that will promote equality for farm workers?

7.3.2 Please explain:

8. STRENGTHS PERSPECTIVE

8.1 How do you as an individual feel that you are an asset to Solms-Delta and that your talents have been recognised and enhanced during your participation in “name of the programme”?

9. COMMUNITY WORK

For the last section, I would like to find out more about how “name of the programme” or training that you are involved with works.

9.1 Assessment

9.1.1 Do you know why the project you are involved in was started?

9.2 Identification of needs, problems and assets

9.2.1 How were you or other farm workers involved in identifying the needs or problems in the community that made it necessary to start the programme you are involved with?

9.3 Representation by the community

9.3.1 Is there a committee of farm workers involved in the running of the programmes that are run on the farm?

9.4 Community participation

9.4.1 How do you as a member of the programme you participate in take responsibility for planning the work you are doing in the programme?

9.4.2 How do you feel that the community's involvement in implementing the various programmes has helped solve any social problems experienced by the community?

9.5 Evaluation

9.5.1 Do you take part in evaluating how the programme that you are involved with is working and, if so, how and when is this done?

9.6 General

9.6.1 Now, I would be interested to hear what you think in general about the value of the programmes and training offered for farm workers.

10. OTHER SUGGESTIONS

10.1 If you were given the opportunity to start a programme on the farm, what kind of programme would you start and why?

11. ADVICE

11.1 So, coming to the end of the session, if you could give advice to other farm workers who want to get involved in a programme, what would you say to them?

CLOSURE

I am now going to briefly summarise what we covered in the discussion.

Do you agree?

Thank you

BYLAE 1 - 'N SEMI-GESTRUKTUREERDE VRAELYS

UNIVERSITEIT VAN STELLENBOSCH DEPARTEMENT MAATSKAPLIKE WERK

'N SEMI-GESTRUKTUREERDE VRAELYS

Kapasiteitsbou vir plaaswerkers op Solms-Delta **'n Sosiale ontwikkeling perspektief**

Die doel van hierdie navorsing is om die behoefte aan kapasiteitsbou en bemagtigings-inisiatiewe vir plaaswerkers in die Wes-Kaap uit 'n maatskaplike ontwikkeling perspektief te ondersoek. Reageer op die vrae en stellings so volledig en objektief as wat jy kan. Gee jou antwoorde mondelings en die navorser sal hulle opteken. Die inligting wat jy op hierdie vraelys gee sal vertroulik bly. Die respondent se persoonlike inligting en persepsies sal nie bekend gemaak word.

1. BESONDERHEDE VAN DIE RESPONDENT

- 1.1 Ouderdom _____
- 1.2 Geslag _____
- 1.3 Het jy 'n lewensmaat? _____
- 1.4 Hoeveel mense woon in jou huis? _____

2. ONDERWYSKWALIFIKASIE

Nooit skool gegaan nie	
Primêre skool	
Sekondêre skool	
Tersiêre	

Ander	
-------	--

3. WERKSERVARING

3.1 Wat was jou eerste werk op die plaas?

3.2 In watter posisie is jy tans op die plaas?

3.3 Watter tipe opleiding het jy ontvang om jou toe te rus vir die werk wat jy nou doen?

3.4 Waar het jy hierdie opleiding gedoen?

4. INKOMSTE PER MAAND

Inkomste	
R100 - R500	
R501 - R1 000	
R1 001 - R1 500	
R1 501 - R2 000	
R2 001 - R2 500	
R2 501 - R3 000	
R3 000+	

5. DIE SOSIO-EKONOMIESE OMSTANDIGHEDE VAN PLAASWERKERS

Die volgende deel is van toepassing op jou ervaring van die sosio-ekonomiese status van plaaswerkers.

5.1 Gee 'n aanduiding van wat jy die belangrikste vind van die volgende fokus-areas wat oor die algemeen as probleme beskou word in die gemeenskap.

Fokus-areas	Prioriteitsvlakke		
	Afwesig	Laag	Hoog
Werkomstandighede			
Behuising			
Onderwys			
Gesondheid			
Alkoholmisbruik			
Huishoudelike geweld			
Armoede			
Ander			

5.2 In watter van die bogenoemde fokus-areas ervaar jy die meeste probleme?

5.3 Verduidelik asseblief jou ervaring

6. MAATSKAPLIKE ONTWIKKELING

6.1 Kapasiteitsbou

6.1.1 Deelname aan programme

6.1.1.1 In watter van die volgende kapasiteitsbouprogramme op hierdie plaas was jy al betrokke?

Kapasiteitsbouprogramme	
Vroeë kinderontwikkeling / Klein Handjies	
Naskool klub wat akademiese ondersteuning en holistiese ontwikkelingsgeleenthede aanbied vir skoolgaande kinders op Solms-Delta/Anna Foundation	
Formele musiekonderrig / Music Van De Caab projek	
Die ontwikkeling van vaardighede en die ontspanningsaktiwiteitgroep vir pensionarisse	
Verdere opleiding in 'n spesifieke lyn van werk	
Ander	

6.1.1.2 Hoe is jy betrokke in hierdie program?

6.2 Opleiding

6.2.1 Watter soort opleiding het jy ontvang of ontvang jy as 'n lid van hierdie program?

Soort opleiding	
Werkswinkels	
Gestruktureerde lesings / seminare	
By die werk opleiding	
Deurlopende lesse	

6.2.2 Waarom dink jy is hierdie opleidingsgeleenthede wat aangebied word op die plaas belangrik vir die deelnemer?

6.3 Opleidingsdoelwitte

6.3.1 In watter van die volgende maniere voel jy dat die opleiding belangrik vir jou was as individu en as 'n lid van die gemeenskap?

Waarde van opleiding	
Kennis te verhoog	
Nuwe vaardighede aan te leer	
Ontspanning te voorsien	
Ander	

7. BEMAGTIGTING

Ek wil hê jy moet 'n paar oomblikke neem om terug te dink aan wanneer jy vir die eerste keer betrokke geraak het in (..... program) en hoe jy destyds oor jouself gevoel het.

7.1 Individuele vlak

7.1.1 Vandat jy begin betrokke raak het in die program of opleiding, hoe het jou vermoë in die volgende gebiede verander?

Fokus-areas	Verduideliking
Selfbeeld	
Selfbewustheid	
Onafhanklikheid	
Besluitneming	

7.2 Groep vlak

7.2.1 Watter soort respek voel jy het julle (as deel van 'n groep mense wat as 'n plaasgemeenskap in dieselfde plek werk) as 'n gevolg van die deelname in hierdie program opgebou?

7.2.2 Verduidelik asseblief

7.2.3 Het jy die gevoel dat jy as deel van 'n groep wat deelgeneem het aan (naam van die program / opleiding) nou in staat is om self te organiseer en om onafhanklik op te tree sonder opdrag?

7.2.4 Verduidelik asseblief of gee 'n voorbeeld

7.3 Gemeenskapsvlak

7.3.1 Watter vermoë het julle as 'n gemeenskap van mense om julle behoeftes bekend te stel, en ook veranderinge aan te bring aan praktyke en reëls wat uiteindelik gelyke geleenthede vir plaaswerkers sal bevorder?

7.3.2 Verduidelik asseblief

8. STERKPUNTE PERSPEKTIEF

8.1 In watter opsig voel jy, as 'n individu, dat jy 'n bate is op Solms-Delta, en dat jou talente erken en versterk is tydens jou deelname in die ("naam van die program"?)

9. GEMEENSKAPSWERK

In die laaste deel wil ek graag meer uitvind oor hoe ("naam van die program") opleiding waarby jy betrokke was eintlik werk.

9.1 Assessering

9.1.1 Weet jy waarom die projek waarby jy betrokke was, begin is?

.

9.2 Die identifisering van behoeftes, probleme en bates

9.2.1 Hoe was jy of ander plaaswerkers betrokke in die identifisering van die behoeftes en probleme in die gemeenskap wat dit nodig gemaak het om die program te begin waarby jy toe betrokke was?

9.3 Verteenwoordiging deur die gemeenskap

9.3.1 Is daar 'n komitee van die plaaswerkers wat betrokke is in die bestuur van die programme wat op die plaas bedryf word?

9.4 Gemeenskapsdeelname

9.4.1 Hoe neem jy as 'n lid van die program waarin jy deelneem verantwoordelikheid vir die beplanning van die werk wat jy doen in die program?

9.4.2 Hoe voel jy dat die gemeenskappe se betrokkenheid in die implementering van die verskillende programme gehelp het om enige sosiale probleme wat ondervind word deur die gemeenskap op te los?

9.5 Evaluering

9.5.1 Neem jy deel aan die evaluering van die program waarby jy betrokke is, om te sien of dit werk? Indien wel, hoe en wanneer word dit gedoen?

9.6 Algemeen

9.6.1 Nou stel ek daarin belang om te hoor wat jy in die algemeen dink van die waarde van die programme en opleiding wat aangebied word vir plaaswerkers.

10. ANDER VOORSTELLE

10.1 As jy die geleentheid gegun word om 'n program op die plaas te begin, wat sal die aard van die program wees wat jy sou wou begin en hoekom sou jy dit wou doen?

11. ADVIES

11.1 So, ons kom aan die einde van die sessie. Indien jy raad sou gee aan ander plaaswerkers wat programme wil begin, wat sou jy vir hulle sê?

12. AFSLUITING

Ek gaan nou kortliks opsom wat ons in die gesprek gedek het.

.Stem jy saam?

Baie dankie